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MUCH IN LITTLE;

COMPRISING A

HISTORY OF THE CHARTERS, GOVERNMENTS, AND RELATIONS OF THE COLONIES;

THE

ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF POLITICAL PARTIES,

AND THE

INSTITUTION OF AMERICAN SLAVERY.

ALSO,

A MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT, CONTAINING HISTORICAL ITEMS, INTERESTING AND USEFUL,

TOGETHER WITH

MANIAS, SUPERSTITIONS, SPECULATIONS,

AND

CURIOSITIES OF LITERATURE.

BY C. FLETCHER.

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PREFACE

In this little book I have aimed to supply a want which has been felt by myself, and often expressed by others, to obtain essential items of history without the necessity of searching through many details to arrive at a few facts.

I claim originality of arrangement, in presenting so great a variety of items, regarded as valuable, instructive, and amusing, in so small a compass, and at a cost so trifling.

The title indicates the design, which is believed to have been accomplished in execution.

From the endless number of subjects from which to select, I have taken such as my judgment and taste dictated; and although I cannot anticipate that all are the most useful that might have been chosen, yet the conviction is cherished, that more is offered to the public in this than was ever before contained

in one volume of its size. I have aimed at utility more than ornament; to instruct, rather than cater to a morbid appetite.

Many books are sold by the gilding upon their covers. I have dressed my little messenger in a decent garb, but claim that its merit lies within the covers, and that all who may read it will be satisfied that they have received a fair and full equivalent for their time and money.

Boston, April, 1857.

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INCIDENTS OF HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

MOVEMENTS IN EUROPE.

The fifteenth century is a period marked by many incidents of the greatest interest to humanity. It was an age of inventions and new developments. The mariner's compass, — the art of printing, — a correct knowledge of the science of astronomy, — gave a new impulse to the nations of Europe, and awakened a spirit of enterprise for maritime discoveries, and imparted a desire for general knowledge, before unknown. "A night of a thousand years had brooded over the earth; it was long and tempestuous, as if the light of moral day were extinguished forever, and the King of Darkness had began his final reign. Despotism, civil and religious, crushed the energies of the immortal mind, and iniquity, like a flood deep and broad, submerged all Europe. Nearly all the learning that did exist

was confined to the clergy; and yet they were so profoundly ignorant as to afford a subject of reproach and ridicule." Learning was almost extinct. Its flickering lamp scarcely emitted a ray of light.

As might be expected, this long night of ignorance generated a loathsome brood of superstitions. Nothing can surpass the wild fanaticism of that period.

To such a height did the phrensy for the crusades to the Holy Land rise, that in one instance (A. D. 1211) an army of ninety thousand, mostly children, and commanded by a child, set out from Germany for the purpose of recovering the Holy Land from the Turks. Of these crusades we shall speak elsewhere. From the influence of the crusades may be dated the dawn of a brighter day about to rise upon the nations. From this period learning began to revive; universities were founded; many arts and sciences were introduced into Europe from the East; and a new spirit of inquiry created.

New enterprises from this time nerved the arm of every nation in Europe. A highway was opened to the nations of the East. The boundaries of men's ideas were greatly enlarged. From the star in the East the nations of Europe had received new light; — in the region of the

setting sun a still brighter day was about to dawn upon the world. The inventions, already spoken of, afforded new facilities for improvement, and were adopted as the means of advancing and enlarging every branch of human knowledge. The result of this spirit of enterprise was the discovery of India by the Portuguese, by the way of Cape Good Hope, and also America by Columbus.

A knowledge of the rotundity of the earth was embraced by the learned of that day. This gave birth to the idea that India might be reached by sailing west. It induced the voyage of Columbus, the result of which is well known.

The discovery of America forms a new and conspicuous era in the world's history, and is destined to exert a greater influence over the human race than any other event in the past, or, perhaps, even in the future. The immediate effect was to excite a spirit of commercial cupidity, which gave a vigorous impulse and a new direction to speculative pursuits, and clothed with greater importance all maritime enterprises.

The planting of colonies, in this new world, gave a new aspect to the commerce of the nations, — engrafted new and novel principles into their laws, and in no small degree influenced the

political relations of every nation in Europe. But the political effects are of little interest compared to the moral influences which were to be exerted upon the destinies of mankind in establishing their liberties, securing their rights, and exalting their condition.

The policy of the Spanish nation being to derive the greatest amount of profit from her colonies, the effect was to keep them in a state of abject dependence and complete servitude; hence there has been no national or manly development worthy of the name.

Their object was to obtain the precious metals, which were found in great abundance, and to procure which they conquered, murdered, and enslaved. They succeeded in their designs, and ruined their nation. The facilities for procuring the metals were such, that they neglected the true means of national wealth, agriculture and manufactures, giving themselves up to luxury and extravagance until they became weak, effeminate, and degraded. The English colonists, on the other hand, consisting of the persecuted at home, brought with them to some extent the elements of freedom; and many of them obtained charters, in which the essential rights of self-government were recognized, and the germ of their future greatness thus early implanted.

CHAPTER II.

INCIDENTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

Our limits will allow but few details; the leading incidents only of our early history will be given; embracing such as are most interesting and prominent, from the discovery of America down to the establishment of the government under the Constitution.

The first land in the new world discovered by Columbus was one of the Bahama Islands, which he called San Salvador, or "Holy Saviour." Columbus supposed he had reached the coast of India, and hence gave to the natives the name of Indians. The island of Cuba he supposed to be the continent of Asia. The Portuguese were at this time active in maritime adventures, and the Spanish government being jealous of them applied to the Pope to confirm their discoveries. The Pope issued a bull by which he granted to Portugal only what might be discovered on the east of a line drawn from the north to the south pole three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Azore islands, while

all west of the line was secured to Spain. The Spaniards pushed their discoveries and conquests with great vigor, and at the end of fifty years were in possession of Mexico, most of the West India Islands, a large portion of South America, and Florida.

They also subsequently claimed that Florida extended to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Upon their conquest of St. Domingo, they instituted the system of servitude, by which they scourged the natives. The Spanish government sent out mechanics and artisans, husbandmen and laborers; and they also drained their galleys of convicts, to recruit their colonies.

England also did the same at a later date, which became a source of great complaint to her colonies.

The Spaniards first required a tribute from the natives, in the form of gold dust sufficient to fill a *hawk's bill*, or twenty-five pounds of cotton, each quarter. This was afterwards changed to the feudal principle of serfdom, by allotting a portion of land to each colonist, and compelling the natives to cultivate certain portions for their masters, in lieu of the tribute before imposed on them. This was the germ of that system of slavery which was established throughout the whole of the Spanish provinces

in America. It reduced a large proportion of the natives to the most humiliating servitude, and subjected them to grievous and intolerable oppressions. They having been unaccustomed to toil or labor, sank by thousands to premature death. A Catholic priest, witnessing the oppression, from motives of humanity, suggested the more hardy African as a substitute. This suggestion was adopted, — found to be an improvement, — and was the foundation of African slavery upon this Continent. Having given thus much in relation to Spain, we will now turn our attention to the French possessions in America.

The French made early discoveries, and before the English had established any permanent settlements, were in nominal possession of the Atlantic coast north of Pennsylvania, the Canadas, the St. Lawrence river and territories to the Lakes, and thence of the Mississippi river and territory to the Gulf of Mexico.

Their claim included Vermont and a large portion of New York. This was confirmed in 1603, by a grant of Henry IV. made to Sieur de Monts, extending from Pennsylvania to New Brunswick, under the name of Acadie.

After the English grants and settlements, these

claims were a fruitful source of difficulty, until 1713, when the English by treaty came in possession of Acadie, embracing Maine east of the Kennebec river, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia; — the first claim from Pennsylvania to the Kennebec having been previously yielded. France was then left in possession of a territory from the Gulf of St. Lawrence around the English colonies to the Gulf of Mexico. Quebec was settled in 1608. Montreal, Detroit, St. Louis, and other trading posts, at an early date. These, with their Jesuit missionaries among the Indian tribes, whose favor they generally secured, made them formidable rivals to the English, and dangerous to their colonies. But the French settlements were feeble. Their people were adventurers in search of wealth, allured by the fur trade, rather than pioneers to establish a home, and cultivate the soil.

In this relation the two nations continued, often at war, until 1763, when the English conquered the Canadas, and left France her territory west of the Mississippi river, called Louisiana, which we shall have occasion to notice hereafter. The English nation claimed the North American coast from Labrador to Chesapeake Bay, as discovered and taken pos-

session of by Cabot in the name of his king (1497–8). For nearly a century, however, the English made little effort to plant colonies in the new world.

CHAPTER III.

ENGLISH COLONIES.

In 1606, in utter disregard of the *charter* of King Henry of France or the *bull* of the *Pope*, the English chartered two companies, the London and Plymouth, whose jurisdiction extended from Cape Fear to Passamaquoddy Bay:—the first to forty-one degrees north latitude, the other from thence to the extreme northern point. Neither was to commence a settlement within one hundred miles of a spot already occupied by the other. The first settlement under these was at Jamestown, Va., in 1607. About one hundred established themselves upon the James river, fifty miles above its entrance into Chesapeake Bay. They named the river and the town in honor of their king, James I., who granted the charter. "The situation was an unhealthy one, and most of the adventurers were poor gentlemen or broken down tradesmen, unused to toil, and better fitted to breed a riot than to found a colony." Half of the emigrants perished during the first six months, but they were finally fed

and recruited from the Mother Country, and thus sustained in their position. The colony made but feeble progress; "they wasted their time in search of gold and silver, and neglected the cultivation of the soil." Such was their thirst for gain that they sent home to England a load of dirt, in which were glittering particles, presuming it was gold.

This colony was reënforced by men of broken fortunes from their native land, who were ripe for any adventure, or the perils of a desperate enterprise.

Thus sustained, the colonists became inured to their situation, and acquired the habits of life necessary to sustain its burdens. In 1619, ninety young women of irreproachable characters arrived, sent out by the company, and sold for one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco, each, as wives for the planters. Many cargoes of paupers, thieves, and other criminals were also sent out, indented for a term of years as servants. At this time (1620) the first slaves were sold at Jamestown, twenty in number.

The staple article was tobacco, and in its cultivation slave labor was profitably employed.

At first the lands were held in common, and the products of labor thrown into a common stock. It was not satisfactory. "The idle and

the dissolute by this system were equal to the virtuous and industrious, and lived upon their labor." It was soon changed to an allotment of land to each, who must work on his own account.

The savages had formed a plot to destroy the colony. They succeeded so far as to murder three hundred and fifty-seven in one day; but were finally driven back with great slaughter, and from that time were not again formidable.

It was a fearful war for the infant colony; during which the savages destroyed upwards of sixty of the eighty settlements then made. But we cannot longer dwell on Virginia, and will therefore proceed to consider the progress of events in the north.

On the 22nd of December, 1620, "on a stern and rock-bound coast," landed the immortal band known to the world as the Pilgrims, or Puritans, — one hundred and one, from the good ship Mayflower. On a sterile coast, with the rigors of a New England winter added to their fears of a savage enemy, with their thoughts of home and the friends and comforts left behind, with doubts and uncertainty before them, they sang their anthems of praise, and under the protection of Him in whom they had trusted, prepared to

go forward and do battle for the cause which had brought them to these shores.

"Amidst the storm they sang,
And the stars heard, and the sea,
And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang
To the anthem of the free."

Of their sufferings and triumphs, their discouragements and successes, the world well knows. A noble band, with great hearts and holy purposes. We may regret their religious austerity and bigotry; we may deprecate their want of knowledge of the great principles of humanity, in their broadest sense; but they possessed the germs of truth; and it was left to after ages to mature what to them was but incipient. They formed an association combining all the elements of a true republican government, which was the foundation of all we hold dear, and presents itself to the world as the most perfect system ever devised by man.

As Massachusetts acted a conspicuous part in the affairs of the nation, and our Puritan ancestors had their full share of notoriety and influence, we will take a glance at the history and relations of the several colonies and people. The Plymouth Company's grant extended from forty-one degrees north latitude to Passama-

quoddy Bay. In 1607 this company sent out a colony of forty-five, who camped for one year upon an island near the mouth of the Kennebec river. The famous John Smith of Virginia colony and Pocahontas memory sailed, in 1614, along the coast from Penobscot river to Cape Cod, and gave the name of New England to the territory.

The first permanent settlement was that at Plymouth, which we have noticed. And this was by accident. The Puritans had obtained a charter from the London company, and started for Virginia. But God in his wisdom had another field for them to occupy; had other work for them to do.

New England was the soil best adapted to their hardy natures; and its institutions were to be fashioned by their firm characters and lofty principles. In 1629 the Massachusetts Bay Company was chartered. This charter was extremely liberal, its officers being elected by the people; allowing, in most respects, the privileges of a self-government. But the people of Massachusetts Bay early, and upon many occasions, manifested symptoms of insubordination; and such was the irritation caused the Mother Country by her wayward children, that she revoked the charter in 1691, and made the

governor and other officers appointees of the Crown.

After the liberal grant to the Massachusetts Bay Company, emigration poured in rapidly, and "Trimountain," now *called* Boston, soon took the lead in New England, and became the nucleus around which all parties rallied, and from which went out an influence that was felt throughout the land. Their charter was more liberal than the action under it. Puritan bigotry was at once brought into action, in refusing the benefits of the charter except to members of the Church. This reduced the freemen to a small number, and made the Church and State virtually one.

CHAPTER IV.

COLONIAL CHARTERS.

THE government of the Mother Country had but little sympathy for the Puritan colonies, and hence they relied upon their own resources, and became strong through neglect and self-dependence. In 1638 the colony granted four hundred pounds towards a college, which resulted in the foundation of the university at Cambridge, named after the Rev. John Harvard, its first private benefactor.

Two colonies were established about this time in Connecticut, by men from Massachusetts. The two were afterwards united by a liberal charter, under which they continued until long after the other colonies, except Rhode Island, had assumed new constitutions. Roger Williams purchased territory of the Indians, and procured a charter from the Crown, with all the rights of a free government, under which the state remained until the Dorr rebellion, in 1840. New Hampshire was first granted to private individuals; and, after much contention and many changes, it became a separate province (1741). It had been for forty years

under the government of Massachusetts. In 1691, Plymouth and Massachusetts were united; and Maine, after many changes, was purchased of the Gorges' heirs (1677) for twelve hundred pounds, by Massachusetts, and became a dependency of that state. The changes attending the territory of Maine were peculiar. Its first name was New Somersetshire; — west of Kennebec, owned by Gorges; east of Kennebec, claimed by New York. It was afterwards detached by the French and held by them until 1713, when by treaty it was ceded to Massachusetts, and remained so till 1820, when it became a state.

The colony of Virginia passed from a royal colony to a proprietary grant. Maryland, first granted to Lord Baltimore, also passed through changes, and was finally recovered by the original proprietor. North and South Carolina were first organized as proprietary governments; but were, after much difficulty with the proprietors, changed to royal provinces.

New York was early settled by the Dutch, and claimed by Holland. But in 1664, England being at war with that country, and not having the fear of the renowned governor Stuyvesant before its eyes, granted the territory to the Duke of York, who took possession of and retained it

until his accession to the throne, when it became a royal province.

New Jersey and Delaware were proprietary grants. Pennsylvania, as is well known, was granted to William Penn, who instituted a government based upon principles of republicanism, under slight restrictions from the Crown.

In Pennsylvania and Rhode Island religious toleration was granted. Georgia was founded in 1732, under a plan formed by General Oglethorpe and other gentlemen, for purposes of philanthropy. Their design was to furnish a place of refuge for poor debtors and other indigent persons from Great Britain, and for persecuted Protestants from all nations. The land was to be appropriated among the settlers, donations being made to pay their passage and supply them the first year.

Funds were freely contributed under the impression that it would reduce the poor rates, by emptying the jails and workshops of the country. But, instead of hardy sailors, mechanics, and agriculturists, they were chiefly broken-down tradesmen and impoverished debauchees, poor materials for a flourishing colony. The first band founded the city of Savannah. Their government was under trustees, who had the exclusive right of legislation. Their generous motto was,—"*Not for ourselves, but for others.*" They strictly forbade the

introduction of negro slaves. The use of rum was prohibited. The land was to descend to the male children, or revert to the trustees. It languished under the trustees as an object of charity; but after its institutions were assimilated to the other colonies its growth became steady and prosperous. All the colonies except New York and Virginia were founded and peopled chiefly by religious exiles: — the Puritans in New England, the Quakers in Pennsylvania, the Catholics in Maryland, Scotch Presbyterians, French Huguenots, and Methodists in the South, German Lutherans in Pennsylvania and elsewhere.

Earnestness, sobriety, an independent spirit and hatred of oppression, characterized the people. There were no great differences of rank or social position. The colonists were allowed enough of freedom in the management of their affairs to develop that germ which was inherent with most of them.

They soon adapted their habits and pursuits to the circumstances under which they were placed, and increased rapidly in wealth and population. They were no longer feeble dependents, but possessed all the elements of a mighty nation (1700).

CHAPTER V.

ABORIGINES.

The Aborigines form an important feature in the history of the country, and claim some notice. We will therefore give the names and locations of the different tribes. They have been represented by historians as consisting of four grand divisions, — namely, Algonquins, Iroquois, Mobilians, and Dahcotas.

Their numbers have been estimated at about 300,000. No estimate could approach to any degree of accuracy. They were subdivided into vast numbers of tribes, occupying the territory from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico.

The Algonquins were the most numerous; they were known in Maine as the Abenakis; in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, as the Pautuckets, the Massachusetts, the Pokanokets, Narragansetts, Pequots, and Mohegans. The Susquehannas, Nanticokes and Delawares, Pouhatans and Pamlicos, occupied the Atlantic coast from Connecticut to South Carolina. The same race may be traced in the West through Ohio,

Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana, as the Ottawas, Miamis, and Shawanoes. At the South, extending from Georgia to the Mississippi river, were the Mobilians, comprising the Muskhogees, or Creeks, the Catawbas, Cherokees, the Seminoles, Choctaws, Chickasaws, and Natches.

The Dahcotas were situated west of the Mississippi river. The Iroquois were in New York, and known as the Five Nations, who were allied with the English, and formed a barrier against the tribes of Canada, for the protection of the frontier. These tribes were the Mohawks, the Oneidas, Onandagas, Senecas, and Cayugas; also the Eries, Hurons, and other small tribes, which were conquered by the Five Nations. A portion of the tribes practised a rude agriculture, but hunting was their principal support. "The Indian was everywhere a hunter, everywhere a warrior; the habits of civilized life were a burden, sometimes a destruction, to him."

Of the treatment of the Indians by Europeans, their provocations and retaliations, volumes might be written. "Scorn, treachery, and degradation were their portion; fury and savage warfare their revenge."

The Spaniards and French early sent missionaries amongst them; but while they presented the gospel in one hand, they robbed them of their

treasure with the other, or reduced them to slavery. Well might the Indian exclaim, — "*Go, make the pale face honest!*" From about 1630 to 1800, the conflicts between the natives and the colonies, and the general government, were almost unceasing. A description of these wars, their causes and results, would form instructive and thrilling items of American history. We have space only to notice one, — King Philip's.

Philip was the chief of the Pokanokets, or Wampanoags, a tribe situated on Narraganset Bay.

The Pequots, a small tribe on the Connecticut river, had committed many depredations and murders upon the colonists, who, being provoked beyond endurance, the English totally annihilated them, 1637.

This created a suspicion in the other tribes, which continued until the famous Philip's war, in 1676, when the New England tribes were nearly destroyed, except the Abenakis in Maine. The tribes saw their lands passing into the possession of the Whites; their hunting grounds trespassed upon; their people cheated, and their complaints disregarded. Urged on by provocations like these, war commenced.

Philip had for some time been under the suspicion of forming a conspiracy with the other

tribes to exterminate the English. The New England tribes generally, — except in Maine, — participated. The war was fierce, bloody, desperate, savage, and destructive. In one action, where the Indians had entrenched themselves in a Rhode Island swamp, nearly four thousand of them were slain. This battle was decisive, and broke the organization and power of the tribes. Philip was shot by an Indian ally of the English; his boy, the last of his line, was sold into slavery and carried to Bermuda, and those who escaped found homes in the western forests.

But few of the many wars with the natives have borne any parallel to this. Month after month witnessed scenes of ambush, assault, devastation, and butchery.

The work of blood was as savagely done by the English as by the Indian. At one time the Indian forces had penetrated within eighteen miles of Boston, and so formidable were their numbers that the result of the contest was in fearful doubt. But at length victory declared for the colonists, and the race of Philip was given over to the executioner and the slave dealer; and his territory shared between Plymouth and Rhode Island.

But the war had cost the colony about six hundred lives; the total destruction of six hundred

dwellings; with the partial or total destruction of many villages. The expenses of the war were enormous for the resources of the colonies. No further difficulties were had with the tribes of New England except those in Maine, before mentioned.

Upon the bank of the Kennebec, upon a beautiful and romantic spot, in what is now the town of Norridgewock, there lived a tribe, who for many years had with them a Jesuit priest, by the name of Rasles. This tribe had a church, had acquired some little knowledge of agriculture, and had generally embraced the religion of the priest, who held over them a parental control.

"*Father Rasles*" had become an object of suspicion to the settlements down the river, who were English, as many incursions had been made by the tribe to plunder and even murder the inhabitants. Under these circumstances a force was sent to destroy the village at "*Old Point*," which was accomplished August 23, 1724. Upon the morning of the Sabbath, after the Indians had repaired to their church, they were surrounded by the English, nearly all murdered, among the number their priest, their church and village totally destroyed, and the tribe forever broken up. On the anniversary day, 1833, a monument was erected upon the spot, under the direction of

Bishop Fenwick of Boston, in presence of an immense concourse of spectators; curiosity strongly exciting them to witness the Catholic services performed, which were solemn and imposing in the extreme. A large delegation of Indians were present and participated in the ceremonies.

CHAPTER VI.

PERSECUTIONS.

The philanthropic heart, at this day, is pained whilst reading the accounts of persecutions which took place from about 1630 to the close of that century.

But we must make some allowance for the spirit of the age, and the peculiar circumstances under which the colonists were placed. The Puritans had full and complete authority in New England. They left their home in the old world to find a place in the new, where they could enjoy undisturbed the faith and worship so dear to them.

If innovators were permitted to come in and disturb their peace, what availed the sacrifices they had made? They could not reconcile it with their views of moral obligation, that they were called upon to permit such trespass on their rights. Two hundred years ago, the principles of religious toleration were imperfectly understood.

There was room enough for heretics and schismatics in the wilderness; let them go and establish a community of their own, or fraternize with

the natives, for which their principles were better adapted than for the pious Puritans. The Quakers and Baptists were peculiarly obnoxious to them. They had no room for the broad brims of the one, nor respect for the stubborn heresy of the other. The Puritans desired to rest in peace from all theological controversies; they owned the land, and had a right to expel intruders. The magistrates were vigilant, with all their power, to keep out heretics and preserve the purity of the church. The Quakers were sent beyond the limits of the colony, and threatened with the loss of their ears, the mutilation of their tongues, and even death, if they returned. Any person found in attendance at a meeting of the Quakers, or who might even entertain a Quaker, was subject to a heavy penalty; and the master of a vessel, who should bring a Quaker into the colony, was fined one hundred pounds.

From 1650 to '60 three executions took place. That of Mary Dyer is the most noticeable, from the fact that she had been reprieved, after having been brought to the place of execution. The magistrates published a defence of their conduct, to show that lenity had been extended to her, that she had braved their authority, and that they desired, not the death, but the absence of the Quakers. A few who were adherents of the

Church of England came to the colony; but they were immediately *returned*, as contraband goods.

The first laws of the colony might appear sumptuary to the progressives of this age; but they were vastly safer than modern licentiousness. The Sabbath was observed with Jewish strictness; blasphemy, witchcraft, and adultery were punished with death. Slanderers were whipped, had their ears cropped, and were also banished. If the same laws existed at this time against these crimes, and were rigidly enforced, it would require a steam-engine of fifty horse-power to perform the executions. Roger Williams, a Baptist clergyman, who became famous as the founder of Rhode Island colony, was banished in 1635, for denying the right of the magistrates to compel attendance upon their form of service, or to bind the conscience by human laws. John Clark, a Baptist, was "*fined twenty pounds, or to be well whipped.*"

The New England colonies, except Rhode Island, coincided with Plymouth. Rhode Island stood firm to the principle of toleration.

Nicholas Upsall, one of the oldest freemen, for extending kindness to the persecuted, was banished for three years, and upon his return thrown into prison.

The royal clemency was invoked to stop these

outrages, and after much delay liberty of faith was secured to all Protestants (1679).

In New York the Church of England prevailed. They ordered every Catholic priest, if he voluntarily entered the state, to be hanged; and imposed heavy restrictions upon all Protestants who would not submit to their Church. Maryland proclaimed death to the stubborn soul that denied the Trinity, and all manner of evil to him who denied the Blessed Virgin or the Holy Evangelists. But to Virginia was left the fame of adding sacrilege to persecution. She laid violent hands upon *Puritanism* itself. A small number of Puritans, who had settled in that state, "were warned to depart the colony with all *conveniency*."

They well understood the purport of the order, and left accordingly. Neither were the Quakers nor Baptists forgotten; for each of these *liberal* provision was made, if they intruded their unwelcome presence upon the *pious* Virginians.

A press for books was established at Cambridge, 1639; but such were the restraints upon it that but little was effected. In 1636, there were four small book stores in Boston, and libraries were gathering to some extent. Boston furnished the first newspaper of the country, called the News Letter (1704).

A very early espionage and censorship was

instituted over the press of the colonies, the Mother Country becoming early jealous of its influence. The Philadelphia Mercury was forced to apologize for some slight offence to the governor and council (1722). "The press is under my control," says Gov. Shute of Massachusetts (1719). James Franklin was imprisoned for having allowed his brother Benjamin's strictures upon religious hypocrisy (1723). But a better day began to dawn, more liberal principles were taking root, the fruits of which were soon to be realized and spread broadcast over the land.

The famous John Wesley appeared in this country in 1736, and two or three years later the world-renowned George Whitefield. These stirring apostles of a new faith travelled through the colonies, everywhere preaching to vast multitudes; breaking up the old landmarks of bigotry and superstition, leaving in their places more liberal views of religion, and impressing upon the hearts of the people a firm conviction of the great truths of fraternity and brotherhood among men.

In 1760 a great fire consumed a large portion of the "*village*" of Boston, and awakened a sympathy which was creditable to humanity and gratifying to the suffering. "*Material aid*" poured in from Pennsylvania, New York, Nova Scotia, England, Scotland, and other places.

Having given the foregoing miscellaneous items of history, we shall now proceed to the political condition and relations of the several colonies, from 1700 to the War of *Independence.*

CHAPTER VII.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES.

The original thirteen colonies were :—New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Maine was then a dependency of Massachusetts. Vermont was claimed by New Hampshire and New York. The first thirteen constituted the government of the country, until the adoption of the Constitution, and the admission of new *states* under it. In a previous chapter we have given the charters and governments of the several colonies; we shall therefore proceed to notice the causes of irritation given by the Mother Country. In the commercial world, Boston represented the American colonies. The people of New England early entered into the fisheries, coast navigation, what foreign trade they were permitted to carry on, and they also engaged in the African slave trade.

Boston maintained a leading maritime trade,

for more than a century after the American people had acquired a reputation among the nations.

Virginia assumed and maintained a leading position in agriculture, for a long period. The character of the colonists, their indomitable perseverance and energy, with an occasional manifestation of insubordination, especially in Massachusetts and Virginia, made them and their governments objects of jealousy and care at an early period to the Mother Country. The *Navigation Act* was an earnest of what might be expected, if the principles it involved were to be insisted upon. This act required all products of the colonies to be shipped in British or American vessels, to the ports of England alone, — Great Britain to be the sole market, and no foreign vessel permitted to enter a colonial harbor (1651).

But there was still another, and more direct, interference with colonial rights.

The colonies were well adapted to the raising of wool; and to prevent them from manufacturing it, the trade in the raw material or its fabrics was prohibited between the provinces under heavy penalties. Furs were abundant, but the colonists were not permitted to manufacture their own hats. Iron, wood, and coal abounded; but iron mills and furnaces were forbidden as nuisances (1750).

Still more, — duties were imposed upon certain

enumerated articles, passing from one colony to another.

To enforce these acts required a body of revenue officials, royal custom houses, and other appliances of authority. These duties were regarded as striking a blow at not only colonial rights, but at the very principles of civil liberty.

A British sailor in an American port could not purchase a suit of a greater value than forty shillings; and the printing of the Bible was made piracy.

An oath was required of the governors, that they would enforce the obnoxious statutes.

This caused great discontent and excitement in Massachusetts. A notice for the appointment of a collector for New England was torn down, by order of the magistrates; but the ebullition of a *Boston* mob, or any other demonstration of opposition, had no effect. The pills were prepared by home physicians, and the colonists must take them. All this only increased the number of officials, and tended to strengthen the cords of royal authority.

It was during this period that the New England colonies were consolidated into one province, and the tyrant Andros appointed governor (1686). He overthrew the assemblies; interfered with the liberty of the press; declared town organiza-

tions null; and, as New York and New Jersey were both attached to his government, was on the high road to universal dominion, when the revolution in England aroused a spirit of opposition in New England that deposed Andros, and declared Bradstreet governor. Andros was afterwards appointed governor of Virginia, and having learned wisdom by dealing with *Yankees*, made, it was said, a very good governor. As this revolution in England affected in some degree the destiny of the colonies, we will notice it.

During the Commonwealth under Cromwell, the Presbyterians and Puritans had the power. Upon the death of the Protector, his son, a weak prince, was soon deposed, and the Stuarts restored in the person of Charles II.

The Episcopal Church was again restored; and such was the bitterness towards Cromwell, that his remains were exhumed and hung in chains. Charles was fickle, voluptuous, reckless, and at heart a Catholic. He sold himself to Louis XIV. of France, with the intention of restoring the Catholics to power; but the Parliament, which was strongly Protestant, remained firm, and passed the *Test Act*, making Catholics ineligible to office. In 1685, Charles II. died, and was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of York, as James II.

James was an avowed Catholic, and hoped, by cunning and severity, to place them in power.

For this purpose he appointed the notorious Jeffreys chancellor, who, with the axe of justice, and a crew of suppliant tools as assistants, passed through the country, trying without jury, and convicting without law, all such as could be reached, who might stand in the way of Catholic restoration. The ermine of his office was stained with blood, and his name will descend to remote generations, held in utter detestation. The people at length arose and deposed the king, who fled to France, and placed upon the throne William and Mary, who changed the English succession from the House of Stuart to that of Hanover, which still continues.

This revolution placed the power and patronage of government in the hands of the aristocracy, who immediately set about enforcing the Navigation Act, and claimed the right to manage all matters pertaining to the colonies agreeable to the pleasure of Parliament.

CHAPTER VIII.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

The rapidly increasing growth of the English colonies, from the beginning of the eighteenth century, made them objects of envy and jealousy to the French nation, whose settlements were feeble. Of themselves they were of little consequence, but they had secured powerful Indian allies; and the wars that took place for fifty years, down to the peace of 1763, would present a bloody chapter indeed. Casco, Dover, Salmon Falls, Deerfield, Haverhill, &c., are burned in the North; massacres and burning are frequent at the South; indeed almost unceasing war was raging with the natives, French or Spanish, until the period above mentioned.

The difficulties between the English and their rivals involved the interests and safety of the colonists; hence they forgot all past differences, and engaged at once in the cause of the Mother Country.

After the cession of Acadie, it was plain that France and England could not remain on this

continent in friendly relations. It is supposed to have been long contemplated by France to strike a decisive blow, and conquer the English colonies. The irritated state of the colonies, about 1750, was thought to favor this design. They had secured formidable Indian alliances. They were well fortified behind the Atlantic colonies, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Mexico.

They had able generals, and strongholds for their army and supplies. With these preparations the war commenced in 1753, although not declared till three years later. It was obstinate, savage, determined, desolating, and bloody. Burning, sacking, destruction, misery, tortures, and death, marked its progress.

The first three years seemed favorable to the French arms. They had nearly all the frontier forts. Their savage allies penetrated into the heart of the English settlements to capture and destroy.

The colonies had raised a large force, and supported them until nearly exhausted. They had no concert with each other, and therefore the burdens were unequal.

At this critical juncture the new premier, Mr. Pitt, inspired a new hope by his prompt action in behalf of the American war. Heretofore the colonies and the Mother Country had acted upon

the defensive; they now resolved to push "the war into Africa," and conquer Canada. The resolution was carried into effect by the conquest of Quebec, September, 1759; and the peace which followed gave to England the possession of all French territory east of the Mississippi river.

This was a great victory, and was the subject of pride and congratulation to the British nation and people. But the "end was not yet" to the colonies.

Fierce and desperate struggles were yet to be sustained, before the Indians could be reconciled to their new masters. These continued to desolate the frontier upon the west for about two years, when the savages were brought to terms, and tranquility for a season was in "their borders." The colonies had lost about 30,000 of their population, and incurred debts to the amount of about sixteen millions of dollars.

From this war the colonies had learned two important lessons. First, their own resources and strength; and secondly, the great importance of a concert of action, by a united government. If their relations remained undisturbed, there was opened before them a career of rapid expansion and prosperity. Emigration was pouring in from Europe, and their pioneers were penetrating

into the western wilds, beyond the Hudson river and the Alleghany mountains.

Upon the Atlantic coast, trade was rapidly increasing. Boston, Newport, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, were assuming importance as "*smart villages*" for commercial traffic, — a position and reputation which they have well sustained.

Much had been accomplished in establishing schools, and promoting the arts and sciences.

Owing to religious prejudices, and conflicting local interests, the colonists had extended to each other, out of New England, hardly the common amenities of life. But little business intercourse was had, and less of a social nature. The struggle they had just passed through had created a sympathy between them, which had great weight in their subsequent troubles.

This pleasant anticipation of prosperity was to receive a check by a gathering cloud, dark, gloomy, and appalling.

The crisis was near, when they must yield to oppression, slavish and degrading; or, defying the power that would enslave them, battle for their own, as well as the freedom of the world. We will look at the immediate causes that precipitated the fearful struggle, and which resulted so gloriously.

CHAPTER IX.

IRRITATING MEASURES.

After the treaty of 1763, the English nation were elated by their success, and, lest their colonies should grow beyond their control, determined to make them feel their dependence, and at the same time enrich their treasury.

It was suspected that a large contraband traffic was carried on in defiance of the Navigation Act.

To prevent this, *writs of assistance* were issued by the judges, authorizing search for merchandise; and these admitted the officer into private dwellings, wherever suspicion or *malice* might direct.

This was a palpable violation of the English law, that every man's house was his castle, and produced among the colonists the greatest indignation. The opposition was so violent, that the authorities made little effort to enforce them.

The colonies were formed into divisions, and a commander-in-chief set over the thirteen. This established a military rule over them, and they were to *pay* for the privilege. They had already

revived the "*Quartering Act*," by which the colonies were to provide for the soldiers stationed amongst them. The tenure of all judicial officials had been changed from "during good behavior," to removal at the pleasure of the Crown or the royal governors,—it having been found that many of the justices sympathized too strongly with the people. But now for the crowning provocation,—the *Stamp Act*. The Americans had admitted that Parliament had a right to regulate their affairs to some extent, but not to lay direct taxes without their consent, or force upon them measures like the Navigation Act and the writs of assistance.

The Stamp Act was the "*last feather*" that broke the people's forbearance. They resolved to resist.

By this act, all business paper, as well as newspapers, must bear a stamp, to show that the person had paid for the right to use them. The colonies were roused to a spirit of resistance.

Massachusetts recommended a general meeting of colonies through their delegates. This was responded to by South Carolina, and resulted in the first Congress of the colonies, at New York, October 7, 1765. North Carolina and Virginia remained silent; they did not send delegates.

The deliberations of the convention were short,

and comprised in the enunciation of the "*Declaration of Rights and Liberties.*" In this bill of rights, the convention set forth the obligation and duties of *mother and children*, as they understood them. They made professions of loyalty, yet insisted upon principles which must lead to a wider breach. Whether so intended or not, it was virtually a declaration of independence. It was a manly appeal, and convinced the British Parliament that they were in earnest in their opposition. It was during this year, 1765, that the non-importation and non-consumption agreements were entered into, — to eat no mutton and raise wool, and refrain from the consumption generally of British fabrics.

Such was the falling off in the importation of goods, that the English merchants used all their influence for the repeal of the Stamp Act; and it was repealed.

There was great rejoicing at the repeal, but it was of short duration. New duties were imposed upon tea, glass, paints, &c., the Quartering Act rigidly enforced, and a salary fixed for all the royal officials.

It was evident that a storm was gathering, and that the clouds were highly charged with explosive elements.

Parliamentary acts and colonial resistance, threats and defiance, were the prevailing communications between the parties. Riots and insults, resulting in the destruction of property, were common. In short, the Yankee spirit was aroused, and could not be suppressed.

A storehouse was burned in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, a schooner was destroyed in Narragansett Bay, and the tea thrown overboard in Boston harbor.

From New York and Philadelphia tea was returned. In South Carolina it was stored in damp cellars to spoil.

In March, 1770, a collision took place in King street (now State), Boston, between the citizens and soldiers, by which three of the citizens were killed, and four or five wounded. This was called the "Boston Massacre."

As chastisement to Boston, after the destruction of the tea, her harbor was closed to all trade, foreign or domestic. This was called the "Boston Port Bill."

But one sentiment seemed now to prevail, — that the crisis had come when resistance was inevitable; but one spirit to animate the people, — that they were ready for the sacrifice. As men began to talk openly of war, it was seen that

nothing could be accomplished without the concentrated action of all the colonies.

This conviction led to the assembling of the first Continental Congress, September 5, 1774.

CHAPTER X.

CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

"It was a noble body that met at Philadelphia on that day." Samuel Adams and John Adams from Massachusetts, John Jay from New York, John Dickinson from Pennsylvania, George Washington, Patrick Henry, and Richard Henry Lee from Virginia, Christopher Gadsden and John Rutledge from South Carolina; — George Washington, President.

The first business of this Congress was to send forth memorials and addresses; and the tone they assumed was decisive of open resistance, unless their grievances were redressed. They adopted an important measure, called the "American Association." This was in the form of an agreement, which the delegates were to recommend to their several constituents, "by which a stop was to be put, after a certain date, to all importations from or exportation to Great Britain and its dependencies, so long as the oppressive acts of Parliament were not repealed."

But little hope was entertained of any mitiga-

tion on the part of the Mother Country. Remonstrances had been disregarded, and arguments had proved unavailing.

The Boston Port Bill caused great indignation, not only throughout the state, but the whole country.

They removed the royal custom house to Salem. Still more was done to punish Boston. The charter was virtually abrogated, by prohibiting town meetings, except by consent of the governor, making all officers appointees of the Crown or governor, and even juries were to be selected by the same; while all persons accused of murder or treason were to be sent to England for trial.

Massachusetts called a general assembly of the people, at Boston, which, being dispersed by General Gage, met at Salem; chose John Hancock, president; resolved that they were, or would be, a Provincial Congress; and proceeded to take measures for putting the state in an attitude of defence.

Not having the fear of General Gage, or his bayonets, before their eyes, they forbade the payment of taxes to the existing treasurer, and ordered all monies to be paid to one of their own appointment. A singular unanimity existed.

The same spirit was manifested in every town in New England.

This was proved when the decisive hour called them to the rescue. Indeed, *this was truly a war of the people.* Thousands of wars have been waged *professedly for* the people, but rather for some potentate or power, in the *name* of the people; but the American Revolution was the first in the world's history where the same sentiments animated every heart, and led to the sacrifice of every enjoyment of life, for the one great principle of civil and religious liberty, as the inalienable right of man. Massachusetts organized and armed her militia, and made ready for the conflict. A strong sympathy pervaded the sister colonies. In view of the treatment of Massachusetts, Washington wrote: "Shall we supinely sit and see one province after another fall a sacrifice to despotism? My nature recoils at the thought of submitting to measures which I think subversive of everything that I ought to hold dear or valuable." The Congress resolved to meet again the following spring, if the state of the country required it. It did meet, and the crisis demanded responsible action. The battle of Lexington took place April 19th. Congress met May 10th, 1775. Although war had actually commenced, yet Congress was inclined to use

conciliatory measures. But no conciliation was manifested on the part of Parliament. On the contrary, the "Restraining Act" cut off the New England colonies from the fisheries and all other trade, save to Britain or her dependencies, — Ireland and the West Indies. The address of the Continental Congress had been *lightly esteemed;* that from the people of Massachusetts, in which they "appealed to heaven for the justice of their cause, and determined to die or be free," was treated with contempt.

The Massachusetts assembly voted General Gage an "unnatural and inveterate enemy." The general afterwards returned the compliment by pronouncing the people "rebels and traitors." As there was little hope of reconciliation, and as the conflict had actually commenced in Massachusetts, George Washington was appointed Commander-in-chief, June, 1775, and was on his way to Cambridge, to assume his command, when the report of the Bunker Hill battle spread like an electric flame throughout the land. And now the hour had come. A people scattered from Passamaquoddy Bay east, to Georgia on the south, numbering about two and a half millions at that time, — without forts, regular army, navy, or discipline, — with towns exposed to the ravages of an enemy, — without arms, ammunition, money,

allies, or credit, — wanting all these, it would seem to be the height of presumption to enter into a conflict with a nation which was powerful on land, and the acknowledged mistress of the seas.

But although *wanting* in so much, the people possessed the spirit that animated the heart of Samuel Adams, when he said: "Though it were revealed to me from heaven, that nine hundred and ninety-nine should perish of every thousand, still would I persist in our struggle, as one such man must possess more virtue and enjoy more happiness than a thousand slaves;" — the spirit that induced the farmer to leave his plough in the furrow, and hasten to enroll himself among the forces of his country, the mechanic to leave his shop, and the professional man his office, each actuated by the same impulse, — a determination to gain a home of freedom, or die in the attempt.

The Continental Congress did all in their power to promote the cause. They organized an army, created what navy was possible, issued continental currency, established a treasury, a post office department, and hospitals.

They also licensed privateers. The Congress of 1775, after adopting the measures before stated, and petitioning anew for redress, adjourned, to meet again at an early day.

CHAPTER XI.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

During the year 1775, a county in North Carolina had declared in favor of independence. It received but little favor for nearly a year. It was not until the second petition of Congress was disregarded that independence was openly talked of. In May, 1776, Virginia instructed her delegates to propose a declaration of independence. In obedience to these, Mr. Lee moved a resolution: "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and of right ought to be, totally dissolved."

Even at this time, a measure so decisive was regarded as premature by a large number of the delegates, and after a spirited debate, a bare majority could be found to adopt it.

A committee was appointed upon the resolution, consisting of Mr. Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. The result of their action was

the Declaration of Independence. This, after much debate, was adopted. The "Rubicon" was passed, and the nation launched upon the deep sea of war, as *the United States of America.*

The first measure after the Declaration, was to draw up some plan of confederation. Articles were adopted and sent to the states, but they were not completed for more than a year; the states being jealous of yielding their rights.

And here let us look for one moment at the relation of the colonies. Their first acts were to adopt state constitutions, as early as might be; and they empowered their Congress to perform certain specific duties, but left it powerless to raise revenue from duties, or pass any acts binding upon the states, beyond those specified. Thus Congress was not a federative head, with any independent powers, but only an agent, with delegated authority. Indeed, the articles of confederation rather diminished than enlarged the power of Congress, as they required the consent of nine of the thirteen states before the adoption of any measure.

The smaller states opposed the claims of the larger to the unoccupied lands; as they had been gained by common exertion, they should be used for the common benefit. The larger states were dissatisfied that the smaller should have an equal

vote. The states nominally possessing the public lands, however, magnanimously gave them up for the general good. Especially is this true of New York, which early came forward with a voluntary offer for that purpose.

As we cannot give details of the war, we will consider the state of the country after the treaty of peace, to the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

The states presented, in many respects, a gloomy aspect, after the war.

Vast debts had accumulated, without the means of discharging them. All enterprises were paralized; private means had been exhausted for the public welfare; each state was absorbed in its own embarrassments; and a burden rested upon all, discouraging to contemplate.

The general government was inefficient to provide a remedy for the wide-spread evil. It was during this state of things, that insurrections were set on foot by the restless and discontented in New Hampshire and Massachusetts. At Exeter, N. H., two hundred armed men demanded of the assembly the emission of paper money, and some other means of relief; but they were dispersed. without loss of life or property.

In Massachusetts, the rebellion of Shays was far more extensive and formidable.

In the summer of 1786, the courts, in several counties of the state, were prevented from holding their regular terms by armed men, whose declared object was to prevent the collection of *taxes* or *debts*. Sympathy with the movement was so general, that it was thought the number might be 12,000 or 15,000 who favored it. This produced an intense excitement. Congress had no power to assist any state, hence the state was left to its own resources. Governor Bowdoin appointed General Lincoln to the command of troops, who soon put the insurgents to flight, and restored order.

Their grievances form an interesting chapter.

A convention of fifty towns, in Hampshire county, in August, 1786, at Hatfield, presented twenty-five complaints, a few of which were: "The existence of the senate. The present mode of representation. The unreasonable grants made to some of the officers of government. The present mode of taxation, as it operates unequally between the polls and the estates, and between landed and mercantile interests.

"The present method of practice of the attornies at law.

"That deputy sheriffs be set aside, and constables be empowered to do the business, by which means a large swarm of lawyers will be banished from

their wonted haunts, who have been more damage to the people at large, especially the farmers, than all the savage beasts of prey.

"That bank paper be issued, and made lawful tender.

"That the Constitution is defective, and should be changed, &c."

The debt of Massachusetts was very heavy. It was estimated that the private state debt, when consolidated, amounted to £1,300,000, besides £250,000, due to the officers and soldiers of the line in the army. Their proportion of the federal debt was not less than one and a half millions of pounds, — making in all, about *twelve millions* of dollars. But the war debts were subsequently assumed by the General Government.

There were troubles in Pennsylvania, and North Carolina, also, but they were readily suppressed.

Prior to this, Washington had written to the state governments, urging upon them the adoption of a "federal head, or directing power." It was not, however, until the state of anarchy, which we have described, existed, that a new hope was inspired by the assembling of a convention to form a constitution, May, 1787. — George Washington elected president.

CHAPTER XII.

THE CONSTITUTION.

The deliberations of the convention were secret. Mr. Randolph, of Virginia, offered a plan embodying, substantially, the Constitution, as finally adopted. Mr. Pinckney, of South Carolina, and Mr. Patterson, of New Jersey, each offered a scheme. That by Mr. Patterson, proposed a government with far less power than the Virginia plan. Mr. Hamilton offered a plan of his own; taking the English constitution "as the best model the world had ever produced," and making the executive and the higher branches of government elective for life, or during good behavior. This plan he presented as the exposition of his own personal convictions; but he presumed it was very remote from the ideas of the people.

Those who favored the New Jersey system, insisted that the convention had no authority beyond revising the articles of confederation; that it might reform, but could not displace the existing government. This was strengthened by the call made by Congress, for the "sole and express

purpose of revising the articles of confederation."

On the other side, they urged that the action, whatever it might be, would be submitted to the states for ratification, and therefore it would become, through their representatives, the action or government of the people. That nothing short of this could answer the purposes of the convention.

The difference between the two sides was great, and produced much debate.

The Virginia plan was finally adopted as the foundation, and then came the difficulty of details.

The most difficult obstacle to remove, was the jealousy of the small states against the larger.

They seemed to apprehend that they should be *swallowed up*, and lose all political influence.

Whatever was proposed or upheld by Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, or Virginia, was sure to meet opposition.

The foundation of difference was in the theory of government; how far, or to what extent, the states should yield up their sovereignty.

The delegates from Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, favored the limited plan of Mr. Patterson.

The name *federal* implied a *league* between the states, as the only true form of a general

government. The party that favored the Virginia plan, urged that they were met to form a government for the people of the nation, and not a league between the states simply. The parties called themselves Federal and National.

The delegates from the small states hinted at *secession*, and those from the larger as strongly hinted at *subjugation*. At the adoption of the Constitution, the Federal party contended for a government of limited power; but after the adoption, the party which had taken the name of Republican were for a limited construction, while the Federalists were for a more free, granting greater power to the General Government, and less to the States. They had changed fronts.

The Federalist, composed of arguments in favor of the Constitution, was written by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay, under the signature of Publius.

Parties were sensitive, from the irritation of debate upon the subjects considered, when the question came up for the votes of States. The large states urged that each should have representatives and votes in proportion to their population, as the only fair arrangement. To this the smaller states refused to assent, at once and decidedly.

Under the confederation, each state had an

equal vote;—for this the Federal party contended in the Constitution. It was compromised by giving an equal vote in the Senate. This was brought about at the suggestion of Dr. Franklin. The convention seemed almost upon the point of breaking up, such was the excitement that had been created.

Yet better councils at length prevailed, and they proceeded to consider the next subject, which changed the position of parties, yet was but little less exciting. The Southern members insisted upon their slaves being counted in the apportioning for representation.

This was at once resisted as absurd; yet when the South refused to yield, it was compromised by counting them as equal to three fifths of the free population.

There was a clause in the Constitution, that by implication forbid the government from interfering with the slave trade. "To have such a feature in the Constitution," exclaimed Mr. Martin, of Maryland, "is inconsistent with the principles of the Revolution, and dishonorable to the American character."

"Religion and humanity," answered Mr. Rutledge, of South Carolina, "have nothing to do with this question. Interest alone is the governing principle of nations. The question to be

decided here, is, whether or not the Southern states shall become parties to the Union?"

It is a notable fact, that the opposition to the South came from the central states. The North was intent upon pecuniary interests, for which they were ready to yield up the great principle for which they had contended in the Revolution, — equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever name, nation, or color. Its large shipping interests might be protected by a compromise with the South. Large profits were realized from the importation of slaves, in which the North was largely engaged. These profits could not be easily sacrificed, and hence the trade was extended for twenty years, — till 1808.

The clause respecting fugitive slaves was introduced, and passed without discussion. The Constitution having been agreed on by the convention, it was presented to the States for ratification; and after much discussion and many amendments, it was finally acquiesced in, and became the great *Magna Charta* of American liberty.

ADMINISTRATIONS AND POLITICAL PARTIES.

CHAPTER I.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

On the fourth of March, 1789, the first Congress under the Constitution assembled at New York.

General Washington had been elected President by universal suffrage: the man deserved the compliment, and the country needed his councils. It was a grave and patriotic assembly. The men who composed it were deeply sensible of their responsibility.

The work was of great magnitude;—the workmen equal to the task. The machinery of a new government was to be set in motion. It might succeed,—it might not.

Every patriotic heart was quickened with high hopes and pleasing anticipations, yet not without fear for the success of their new political experi-

ment. There were many measures which demanded immediate attention.

The provision for raising a revenue was of the first importance. A fiscal agent was also necessary, to facilitate the disbursement of revenues, and provide a circulating medium that should be of uniform value throughout the country. To provide for the debts growing out of the war was a measure of great importance and of urgent necessity. For a Cabinet Council, the President had appointed Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General; Samuel Osgood, Postmaster-General. John Jay, at the creation of the Court, was appointed Chief Justice of the United States. John Adams had been elected Vice-President. The first measures of Congress were to consider the amendments offered to the Constitution. A large number had been proposed; a small portion only were adopted, — and these were generally in relation to state rights, or restricting the power of the General Government.

For revenue, after a protracted debate, a tariff was imposed, which was intended to serve for revenue, and also for protection to domestic industry.

A tonnage duty was adopted, giving great advantage to American shipping. At a subsequent time, an excise was laid on domestic spirits. The measure afterwards produced the whiskey rebellion in Pennsylvania. A bank was chartered in 1791. The debts of the Continental Congress amounted to about fifty millions of dollars; those of the States, to about thirty millions. Mr. Hamilton proposed that the General Government assume and fund these debts. This involved many difficulties. First, it was utterly impossible to ascertain the correct amount of domestic debts as due even from the General Government, much more what was justly due the States, in case of the assumption. Second, it was urged that the original certificates had been purchased by speculators, at a very reduced rate; and to refund the whole amount would be simply enriching them at the expense of the government.

This question elicited much angry debate, and came near stopping the wheels of government. It was finally settled by a system of "*log-rolling*."

A location for the seat of government was a bone of contention. Taking advantage of this, the friends of assumption compromised with the Virginia and Maryland members, by which they received votes enough from them to carry the measure, while they in turn were to vote for the

seat of government to be located upon the Potomac after 1800.

The charter of the bank and its issues, with the funding of the national debt, and the scrip thrown into market, furnished a circulating medium that gave a new impetus to all the business enterprises of the country, and quickened every monied interest. But the charter of a bank had been made a question of direct constitutionality, and the President had many doubts as to its propriety.

And here let us ascertain the precise position of parties. The construction of the Constitution was now the foundation of political divisions. The Federal party were disposed to interpret freely, so as to give the government full force and power. On the other hand, the Anti-Federalists, — now Republicans — were for limiting the powers of the General Government, and enlarging state sovereignty.

The Federalists were accused of strengthening the central power, even to monarchy; while they, in turn, charged upon the Republicans designs of intrigue and sedition. Even disunion was talked of at that early day. It will be borne in mind that the Federal party were in power, and so continued until the election of Mr. Jefferson, in 1801.

A wide breach already existed between the North and South. The South were generally Republicans. The North were as largely Federalists. Northern commerce, manufactures, and other enterprises, demanded a policy which was thought to conflict with Southern agriculture; hence almost all political measures were passed through local influence. The Quakers of Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New Jersey, early urged the abolition of the slave trade. This brought up a "*storm*," as it was termed, which lasted many days, and left the parties in a high state of excitement. As if to add to this flame, the question of the power of Congress over the territories was agitated.

The anti-slavery party urged, and at that time it was not denied as generally as at this, that Congress had power, under the Constitution, to regulate slavery in the territories; the ordinance of 1787 having done so. It was expected that this ordinance would be the precedent for all future time. New states were admitted, most of which gave strength to Southern policy. Vermont, 1791; Kentucky, 1792; Tennessee, 1796. The animosity of parties was deeply seated, and suppressed only by the personal influence of Washington, and the respect felt by all for him.

But at length, after his second election, and the

"French question" adding new fuel, the smothered violence of party rancor burst forth in all its fury, and did not spare even the President. A formidable insurrection broke out in Pennsylvania. The excise on domestic spirits, which we have noticed, was the ostensible cause A convention, seven thousand strong, met to consult upon grievances, armed with all the *panoply* of war. The secretary was Albert Gallatin, afterwards an officer in Mr. Jefferson's cabinet.

Some of the insurgents desired only the repeal of duty upon spirits, whilst others contemplated a separation from the Union. They did not commit any overt acts of treason, however; and although many prisoners were taken, no executions took place. Fifteen thousand militia were called into service by the government, to suppress the disaffection.

The same year (1794) an Indian war upon the northwest frontier was suppressed. This had raged, for two or three years, west of the Ohio river, and had been attended with much loss of life and property to the early pioneers of the Ohio valley.

A most singular item of history is now to be recorded. The Dey of Algiers, and other tribes in the north of Africa, had been accustomed to send out piratical craft to make prizes of all mer-

chant ships. So formidable had they become, that many of the European states had paid them a large annual tribute to spare their commerce.

They had captured two American ships, and made slaves of their crews. In 1795, the Dey proposed to release his captives, and cease his depredations, on condition that the United States pay a certain sum specified. "Three quarters of a million were paid down; an annual payment of full fifty thousand dollars being promised in addition."

Other treaties of the same sort, with Tripoli and Tunis, were being negotiated. This tribute continued until 1815, when our government sent Commodore Decatur to chastise the pirates, and bring them to terms. He did so, and settled all matters, securing our commerce against their depredations, without the disgrace of *paying* for our right.

During the years 1793–4–5, commercial arrangements were entered into between the United States, and Prussia, France, and Spain. In 1793, "Citizen Genet," as he was called, was sent from France as minister to the United States by the Revolutionists. The warm reception he met at Charleston, and on his route to Philadelphia, induced the conviction that the American people strongly favored the French Revolution.

Under this conviction, he sent out privateers from American ports, and directed that their prizes should be tried by French consuls in America.

Genet was an *enthusiastic* Frenchman, and such were his breaches of neutral policy, that at the earnest request of the President he was recalled. A large number of foreigners had found their way to this country, who were political adventurers, and who had assumed the name of Democratic Republicans. The party in opposition to the General Government, under the intense excitement growing out of the French question, also took the name of Democrats, which they have held to this time. The appeals of Genet had a tendency to increase the flame that was already consuming the reason of men. A strong feeling of hatred was natural towards the government and people of Great Britain; and a sympathy as natural for the people of France, after the assistance rendered our nation. But these sentiments led to excesses of opposition and favor, alike unreasonable and unjust. A large party were in favor of declaring war against England, in order to gratify the wishes of the French Revolutionists, who were themselves, instead of patriots and philanthropists, only political assassins.

Our government was already at war with the

Indians upon our northwestern frontier. Our relations with Spain were unsettled, if not menacing. Our resources were exhausted, and our people divided. The calm and patriotic heart of Washington was equal to the emergency. In his proclamation of neutrality, he says, — "that the duty and interest of the United States require that they should, with sincerity and good faith, adopt and pursue a conduct friendly and impartial towards the belligerent powers. April, 1793."

Neutrality thus became the settled policy of the Federal party under Washington. After the policy here developed, there remained no alternative but submission or open rebellion to the government. It was therefore acquiesced in, not, however, without strong remonstrances from the French party. "Until within the past year or two," wrote Washington, "I had no idea that parties would, or even could, go to the length I have been witness to."

In September, 1796, the President issued his memorable farewell address to the people of the United States.

Such was the opposition to Washington, that at his retirement an address to him of grateful acknowledgement was opposed by a number of the members.

CHAPTER II.

ADMINISTRATION OF MR. ADAMS.

THE administration of Mr. Adams commenced on the 4th of March, 1797.

It was evident that the doctrines of the Democrats were being embraced by a majority of the people.

To provide for the exigencies of the government, resort was had to taxes, which rendered the administration extremely unpopular.

The Alien and Sedition laws furnished a still more efficient capital to the opposition.

"The Alien Act authorized the President to banish all aliens suspected of conspiracy against the United States." "This was more of a party manœuvre than appears on the face of it; inasmuch as many of the most ardent spirits of the Republicans, especially the Democratic Republicans, were aliens." "The Sedition Act denounced fine and imprisonment upon all conspiracies, and even all publications, with intent to excite any unlawful combination for opposing or resisting any law of the United States, or any lawful act

of the President." Both these were to be temporary. Little if any force was given to the Alien Act.

The Sedition Act was enforced in many instances, rendering the President and his party objects of open detestation to their opponents. Upon the subject of these laws, the first germs of nullification were discovered. The legislatures of Kentucky and Virginia denounced them as altogether "void and of no force," "and palpable and alarming infractions of the Constitution." These were the famous Virginia resolutions of 1798, which have been so often referred to by political speakers and writers.

Their doctrines were, that any state might at any time repudiate the acts of the General Government, if in their judgment such acts conflicted with the letter or spirit of the Constitution, of which they were to decide.

Such doctrines drew from the other states, many of them, the counter doctrines "denying the right of any state to sit in judgment upon the National Government."

CHAPTER III.

ADMINISTRATION OF MR. JEFFERSON.

The Democratic party, on the 4th of March, 1801, were inaugurated into power, with their favorite leader, Mr. Jefferson, as President. As nearly all the incumbents of office were Federalists, many changes were made by removals.

The administration of Mr. Jefferson was called upon to encounter many and trying questions. Our foreign relations remained in an unhappy state of irritation.

The retaliatory acts of France and England had interfered with our neutral commerce. Spain professed to feel aggrieved at the foreign policy of the United States. The party in power had complete possession of every branch of government, and were responsible for its acts.

The administration of Mr. Jefferson is distinguished for the purchase of the Louisiana territory, for fifteen millions of dollars, in 1803. The purchase was regarded as too important to be neglected, but a great *stretch* of the constitutional doctrines held by the party. It was so admitted by Mr. Jefferson himself.

Our foreign relations continued to threaten a rupture between the government and England.

The President finally, in 1807, recommended, and Congress adopted, an embargo, which put a stop to all commerce, and bore with exceeding weight upon the interests of the Northern states.

This measure led to the most severe criminations on the part of the opposition. The whole country felt the shock from the loss of maritime trade, with the great destruction of property it involved.

We will now consider the most prominent causes which led to the war of 1812. The aspect of affairs in France had so far changed, that the nation had become the enemy of the United States, instead of friend and ally.

The decrees of Bonaparte bore as severely upon neutral commerce as the acts of the British government.

Great Britain, by her orders in council, declared the French ports closed to all neutral vessels, and forbid their trade to them. Bonaparte, by his Berlin decree, prohibited all commerce whatever with the British nation. The British government then forbid all trade with France, except on payment of a tribute to that government.

Then came the retaliatory measure of the

Milan decree, in which Bonaparte declared all such vessels as submitted to the tribute lawful prizes to the French marine. But the *decrees* did not stop here.

Bonaparte issued still another, ordering the confiscation of all American vessels in French ports.

This was immediately followed by a prohibition on the part of Great Britain of the exportation of American produce, whether paying a tribute or not, to the European continent (Dec. 1808).

Prior to this the British government had insisted upon the right—and reduced it to practice—of searching American vessels for deserters from their service.

This measure had been carried so far that "forbearance had ceased to be a virtue," and resistance was determined on, even to war. It is difficult to conceive the virulence of party feeling. The Federal party denounced the embargo as clearly at war with both the letter and spirit of the Constitution, and of no valid or binding force whatever.

CHAPTER IV.

ADMINISTRATION OF MR. MADISON.

Mr. Madison was inaugurated March 4, 1809. The foreign relations of the country remained unchanged. The hostile position of England and France still continued to affect American interests, which, with the empressment of our seamen, caused the war.

At this crisis of our foreign affairs, an Indian war broke out upon our western frontier. Difficulties were threatening also between the United States and Spain, respecting the Florida boundary.

Whatever opinion may be entertained as to the merit of the questions in dispute, they resulted in a declaration of war against England, June 19, 1812.

In the North, especially in Massachusetts, opposition to the war was vehement and determined.

New England had large commercial interests, which suffered severely. The opposition con-

tinued unabated, Massachusetts refusing to call out the militia at the request of the General Government; and, finally, the New England states were represented by party delegates in a convention at Hartford, December, 1814. This, known as the "*Hartford Convention*," was composed of twenty-seven members,—men of the highest order of talents and standing, and as gentlemen of integrity in private life, none higher; yet their meeting, under the circumstances, involved them and their party in a suspicion from which they never recovered. They were accused by the Democrats of "*plotting*" a dissolution of the Union,—a charge which they indignantly denied, and assigned as a reason for their convention the following:—The unprotected condition of New England, and the neglect of government to provide suitable means of defence. They claimed a portion of the large taxes paid by them, to be appropriated in their own defence.

These, with several amendments to the Constitution, and a declaration that "*no hostility to the Constitution is meditated*," closed their deliberations. But the party never recovered from the odium attached to that transaction.

The next year the war closed. Rejoicing took the place of party asperities in the hearts of the

people, and the former parties, as such, reposed in quiet, and to the old Federal party it was the sleep of death.

For ten years there existed no distinctive party lines.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION OF MR. MONROE.

Political parties, during Mr. Monroe's administration, were quiet. The United States Bank was chartered, and a tariff established in 1816. A severe war was had with the Creek and Seminole Indians in 1817–18. Florida was purchased; — Mississippi, Alabama, Illinois, Maine, and Missouri were admitted into the Union. Commodore Porter was sent to the West Indies to suppress piratical depredations. He captured and destroyed about twenty of their vessels, and broke them up. The foregoing incidents, with the visit of Lafayette in 1824, mark the period from March 4, 1817, to 1825.

We will here note the famous "Monroe doctrine."

After a protracted struggle of many years, four of the South American colonies, with Mexico, had thrown off the Spanish yoke, and declared and maintained their independence (1822).

A jealousy that the European allies, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, contemplated rendering as-

sistance to Spain in subduing her insurgent colonies, induced the following declaration from President Monroe in his message (Dec. 1823):—

"As a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects of future colonization by any European powers.

"With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered, nor shall not interfere. But with the governments which have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States."

In 1825, President Adams appointed two envoys to meet in a congress at Panama, with delegates from the South American republics. This measure caused much discussion, but was carried. The congress, however, never met.

CHAPTER VI.

ADMINISTRATION OF J. Q. ADAMS.

As the term of Mr. Monroe's administration drew near its close, much interest was manifested in relation to a successor. Mr. Adams, Crawford, Jackson, and Clay, were candidates. The choice devolved upon the House of Representatives. Mr. Adams was chosen President; J. C. Calhoun had been chosen Vice-President by the electors. The administration of Mr. Adams was marked by peace with foreign nations and quiet at home. The tariff of 1827 was a measure of great irritation, as we shall see. The dead sea of political monotony that had existed for ten years was strongly agitated during Mr. Adams' administration.

There was no chance for political promotion except in agitating the waters, hence the rally upon General Jackson in 1828, and his triumphant election.

The new organization was more with respect to men than principles. Mr. Adams pursued the policy of his predecessor, yet a new order of

things was desired by restless and ambitious *patriots*, who could see no salvation for the country except through a change of administration.

A large number of the old Federal leaders had cherished feelings of unkindness towards Mr. Adams, for leaving the party at an early time. They were found in the ranks of the *new* Democratic party under Gen. Jackson.

The party that supported Mr. Adams took the name of *National Republicans*. The leading questions that have divided them, since their formation in 1828, may be stated as the bank, tariff, internal improvement, sub-treasury, and distribution of the public lands; with many others local and incidental, to keep up an organization.

CHAPTER VII.

ADMINISTRATION OF GEN. JACKSON.

GEN. JACKSON was inaugurated March 4, 1829. Many measures of his administration were of exciting interest to the country. Removals — breaking up of his cabinet — vetoes — nullifications — removal of deposits, &c. — caused much agitation.

The tariff had been revised in 1827, with the principles of protection carried to their greatest extent. This measure caused great dissatisfaction in the South, and led to the South Carolina nullification, in 1832. The country was severely agitated by the position assumed by that state; but the firmness of the President, together with a measure of compromise upon the tariff, restored order. That difficulty brought the question of state sovereignty before the country, which was so ably discussed by the memorable speeches of Hayne and Webster. General Jackson, upon his election, instituted the system of reward and punishment to political friends and opponents.

A general removal of all the officers of government took place. The consequence was, that vast numbers of unworthy men received appointments, and fraud and peculation were carried to a great extent.

The assumptions of power by the President were in direct violation of all the professed principles of the old Democratic party, and made the pretext for a large number of his original adherents to withdraw their support from him (1836). These, uniting with the Republicans, took the name of Whig, by which the party has since been known.

The doctrines assumed by the President in his proclamation upon the South Carolina nullification, were those of the old Federal party, in relation to state rights. This was a "bitter pill" to Southern democracy, and threw many into opposition. The veto of the bank bill, and the removal of the deposits, were acts that created deep feeling, and even alarm in one instance. The President early made war upon the bank of the "*United States*," and, although re-chartered in 1832 by a large majority, vetoed the bill; and in 1833, removed by his own fiat, without the form of law, all the government deposits, and placed them in banks throughout the country. The ef-

fect of this measure was an enormous expansion of issues, and the inevitable reaction that succeeded in 1837, when the "*panic*" spread over the whole land, — the banks suspended specie payments, trading men of all descriptions "*burst up*," and confusion, ruin, and fear prevailed generally. The removal of the deposits was looked upon with alarm, not without reason.

Mr. Duane, who hesitated, as Secretary of the Treasury, to perform the order, was removed, and Mr. Taney, a willing instrument, put in his place. A resolution of censure for this usurpation was afterwards *expunged* from the records. This was brought about by the influence of Mr. Benton (1837). In the early part of our national existence, a military road was put under construction from the Potomac river to the Ohio, at Wheeling, thence through Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois to Jefferson, in Missouri, called the Cumberland Road. Vast sums, from time to time, had been appropriated for this road; and the bill vetoed by the President was still another call for further aid.

The party in power found a large amount projected for works of internal improvement, and determined to place the seal of disapprobation upon the whole system.

An effort was made by Mr. Clay, and generally sustained by the Whig party, to appropriate the proceeds of public land sales to the states, for purposes of internal improvement. That question was before Congress many years, but never was sanctioned.

In 1809 Mr. Clay entered Congress. He was a Democrat, and a leader of the party through the war.

He early advocated protection to domestic manufactures, and also internal improvement; constituting the "*American system.*" In 1811 he opposed the re-charter of the bank, and it was defeated. In 1816 Mr. Clay, with the Democratic party generally, favored a charter which was granted. At that time a tariff was enacted, favored by the South. In 1824 the tariff was again revised, when the principles of protection were fully discussed, and Mr. Webster was found in opposition; Massachusetts fearing the effect of a high tariff upon her commercial interests. Capital was soon after invested in manufacturing, and then the North asked for protection, and the South opposed it. Mr. Clay supported the election of Mr. Adams over Gen. Jackson, and became at once a leader of the Whig party, which position he sustained during his life. Mr. Clay was the father of all the compromises, — the

Missouri, the tariff, and that of 1850. No man ever drew around him warmer friends; few, perhaps, more bitter enemies.

In 1835 the public debt being paid, and a surplus remaining in the Treasury, it was, in 1837, to the amount of twenty-eight millions of dollars, distributed to the states in proportion to the population.

It was during this state of repletion in the Treasury, that the country was laboring under the most severe embarrassment, as we have noticed. "It was represented, that in New York alone real estate had depreciated forty millions of dollars in six months; that two hundred and fifty failures of large houses had occurred in the same time; and that twenty thousand persons had been discharged from labor by their employers." To all the "*relief*" committees who visited the President his memorable reply was, "*that all who trade on borrowed capital ought to break.*"

In 1836 our relations with France were menacing, and threatened a rupture. This grew out of the long standing question of French *spoliations.* In 1831, after thirty or forty years of delay, the French government agreed to pay five millions of dollars. The French Chambers afterwards refused to pay; and the American draft was protested. The President proposed to make

reprisals of French property. This gave great offence, and the French minister was recalled.

England offered her mediation, but France executed the treaty, and so the matter ended.

CHAPTER VIII.

POLITICAL MEASURES.

UNDER this term we shall consider the administrations from March 4, 1837, in a general summary, to the present time.

Mr. Van Buren, in 1837, recommended, as a fiscal agent, an independent treasury. After the removal of the deposits, in 1833, the revenue was deposited in State banks. There were many losses. The sub-treasury, as it was called, met with strong opposition from the Whig party.

Silas Wright of New York, then a prominent leader of the Democratic party, reported and enforced the bill with great eloquence. It failed to pass until 1840. In 1841 it was repealed, under the Whig administration, but was enacted again in 1846, and still remains the fiscal agent of the revenue. It was during the administration of Mr. Van Buren that the States were so deeply involved as not to meet their liabilities.

Indeed, some of them repudiated their debts, and have never paid them. In 1836 the inde-

pendence of Texas was recognized by the United States. The project of annexation was early entertained, and, after many years of finesse and negotiation, the annexation took place in 1845. By the friends of annexation it was pretended that there existed great fear lest Texas would throw itself into the arms of England or France, and that a foreign nation so situated would be fatal to our peace. This measure was opposed by the Whig party of the free states, almost unanimously.

Slavery being the great moving motive, the South were nearly united for it, and the Northern Democracy divided.

The administrations of General Jackson and Mr. Van Buren had been of a strong partisan character. Under the system instituted by Gen. Jackson of rewarding political friends, many unworthy men, taking advantage of his confidence, received appointments to office. From 1835 to 1840, it was notorious that frauds to a vast amount were perpetrated in the land and Indian departments. These were investigated, and led to a deep seated conviction in the public mind, that the "*Augean stable*" should be cleansed, or the infection would be fatal to the moral and political existence of the country. All who were old enough at the time, will ever remember the

exciting, "*hard cider*," *log cabin*, noisy campaign of 1840, which resulted in the choice of the Whig candidate, General Harrison.

The President lived but one month after his inauguration, and the government was conducted by Mr. Tyler.

Mr. Tyler proved a traitor to the party that elected him, and deprived the Whigs of any advantage from measures proposed by them.

In 1841 a general bankrupt law was passed, which gave great satisfaction to those who desired to take advantage of its provisions, and was a measure of regret to such as lost by its operation. It is difficult to determine whether the good or evil would preponderate. Many *honest* debtors were relieved by it, and many *dishonest* took advantage of it to repudiate debts they should have paid.

From 1842 to the present time, the two parties have divided more on men than on measures.

The great questions that had divided them have been absorbed in the greater one of slavery, which, for the last fifteen years, has been directly or indirectly the moving spring of all the important measures of the government. Of slavery I shall speak in another article. The bank question is obsolete; the tariff was virtually settled in 1842 and 1846; whilst internal improvement

will have its advocates, who will occasionally carry a measure, but it will not become a policy of the government.

The inconsistency of man, and the wide distinction between his professions and practice, is most clearly traced in the history of political parties in this country.

The Democratic party started upon the *course* with the profession of guarding every approach to executive assumption of power, beyond what the Constitution clearly granted. Yet, in the embargo, the purchase of Louisiana, and, later, in the removal of the deposits, the annexation of Texas, and many minor acts, there was a clear violation of their professions.

The Federal party, also, by the charter of the bank in 1791, the assumption of state debts, the Alien and Sedition acts, evidently conflicted with the spirit of the Constitution. At a later date, however, the Democratic party chartered the bank; but under the plea of necessity.

Still later, the Whig party has been accused by the Democrats with violating the Constitution in the tariff acts and their efforts for internal improvement. The *name* of Democracy has been the salvo for many acts of party which otherwise would have been unmitigated oppressions, and the poor old ghost of Federalism has fright-

ened many a valorous patriot out of his propriety. The Democratic party have had the control of government, with but few exceptions, for the past fifty years.

They claim to be the great party of progress, and the country has attained a high degree of prosperity under their administration. The energy and activity of physical development have been wonderful, — mental improvement and wisdom in councils not less so. The physical developments may have been too highly stimulated, without a corresponding moral sentiment; and, if so, we have yet to learn wisdom, it may be, by painful experience.

The reason for assuming a new name, in 1836, by the opposition party, was, as they contend, the perfect propriety of the name Whig.

During the struggle between Charles II. of England and the Parliament, the Whig and Tory parties contended for two principles: the Whigs for interposing against the usurpations of the king the constitution, which they regarded as a compact between royal prerogative and the people, and which the king was bound to respect.

"The Tories rejected the principle that the royal power proceeded from the people, and demanded passive obedience from the subject."

The party that supported General Jackson

sustained him in his removal of the deposits, and other acts which were clearly without authority; whilst the opposition party, like the Whigs of England, attempted to interpose the Constitution between the President and his usurpation. Hence they took the name.

THE TERRITORIES.

In order to a better understanding in relation to the territories, we will note their situation, and how they were claimed. Virginia claimed an indefinite territory in the Ohio valley; Connecticut made a large claim to a portion of Ohio, which is known as the Connecticut reserve. Massachusetts claimed a large territory in western New York, five millions of acres of which she reserved. Michigan and Wisconsin were derived from England by the Revolution. North Carolina claimed Tennessee, and Georgia claimed what now comprises the states of Alabama and Mississippi. Kentucky was ceded by Virginia to the United States. The other states had no territories by which to relieve the burden of debts accumulated by the war. They contended that the domain beyond the natural boundaries of the States should be ceded to the government, the proceeds of which should be used for the common benefit of

all the states, by discharging the public debts. This was a reasonable requisition, and with some restrictions adopted.

The cessions of these territories were made during, and immediately after, the Revolution.

Those of the territories south of the Ohio were secured in the right to hold slaves. Over the great northwest the ordinance of 1787 was extended.

CHAPTER IX.

HISTORY OF SLAVERY.

The question of slavery is the most important one before the American people. In fact it casts into the shade every other, for it involves the stability of our government and institutions. No sophistry can disguise the fact, no assurance avert the danger. Our safety demands patriotism and philanthropy, and our self-respect, intelligence and honesty of purpose.

Every American citizen is a sovereign, and to his country and his God is he accountable for the manner in which he discharges his duties. Every young man, when called upon to assume the responsibilities of a citizen, should possess a knowledge of the principles of government, and the various questions which agitate the public mind, and call for intelligent action. This knowledge is indispensable, and a want of it unpardonable.

Of all the subjects of deep interest at the present time, none are more important to be under-

stood than that of slavery. I propose to give a concise history of the progress of this institution in our country, with some of the most exciting incidents which have grown out of it. In this I hope to meet the wants of many, who may not have at their command the means of acquiring the information, yet may desire it.

From the earliest history of our race, slavery has existed in some form, — the strong oppressing the weak.

Man is naturally a tyrant, and wherever power can be exercised he loves its possession. When once he tastes the satisfaction of having his appetites administered to, all convictions of justice are made to yield to this form of iniquity.

Before the dawn of Christianity, and even through the dark ages of its history, there existed some extenuation for feudal oppressions; but the light of the gospel of Christ has illuminated the nations, wherein is written, as with a pen of fire, the great eternal truth of God, — the brotherhood of men, and the obligations of the strong to protect and support the weak, instead of oppressing or enslaving them.

The Spaniards early entered into the trade. They first enslaved the natives; but they were unprofitable servants, and the more hardy African was substituted.

The English nation soon engaged in the slave trade, and forced slavery upon the colonies against their earnest remonstrances.

The first African slaves, twenty in number, were brought into Jamestown, Va., by a Dutch vessel, in 1620.

They were sold at a large profit, and induced a further traffic, which was legal in all the colonies up to the close of the Revolution, immediately after which time it was abolished in New England and Pennsylvania. In New York and New Jersey it was legal until about twenty years since. In 1770, Virginia attempted to impose restrictions upon the slave traffic; "but the governor was directed by the authorities at home to consent to no laws affecting the interests of the slave dealer."

In 1774 a convention in Virginia, of which George Washington was chairman, declared: — "That during our present difficulties and distress, no slaves ought to be imported into any of the British colonies on this continent; and we take this opportunity of declaring our most earnest wish to see an entire stop forever put to such a wicked, cruel, and unnatural trade." In the bill of rights promulgated by the first Continental Congress, they say: — "We will neither import, nor purchase any slaves imported, after the first

day of December next; after which time we will neither be concerned ourselves, nor will we hire our vessels, nor sell our commodities or manufactures, to those who are concerned in it."

North Carolina declared, in 1786, that the introduction of slaves into that state "was of evil consequences, and highly impolitic." The courts of England ruled, in 1697, that slaves by their laws were free; and yet that same philanthropic England was forcing them upon her colonies. Georgia early forbid the introduction of slaves, but finally admitted them, when found to be profitable. Virginia soon found the labor profitable, and coveted the institution. Whilst the sentiments of repugnance existed which grew out of British oppressions, the wrong of slavery, as an abstract principle, had some influence over the convictions of men; but when the love of ease and power, which are inherent, was gratified by slave labor, then all convictions yielded to that passion, and a growing tendency has been manifested to justify and strengthen the institution by every argument, subterfuge, and expedient that men could devise, and, when these failed, defiance has been resorted to.

It is hardly worth the time to trace minutely the progress of the institution before the adoption of the Constitution, further than to say, that sla-

very was imposed upon the colonies by the mother country as a matter of traffic which paid profits. In due time, however, a profit was derived from their labor; and then the system was insisted upon, and finally incorporated by the government as a recognized institution, but local in its character. This fact should be borne in mind. It was regarded with feelings of execration by a large portion of the delegates who met to adopt a constitution. Even many of those from states that continued the system cherished these feelings.

Of this fact there is ample evidence. The original draft of the Declaration of Independence contained the following: "He (the king) has waged cruel war against human nature itself; violating its most sacred rights of life and liberty, in the persons of a distant people, who never offended them, captivating and carrying them into slavery. Determined to keep open a market where men should be bought and sold, he has prostituted his negative for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or restrain this execrable commerce."

This clause, says Mr. Jefferson, "was struck out in compliance to South Carolina and Georgia, who had never attempted to restrain the importation of slaves, and who, on the contrary, still wished to continue it. Our Northern brethren,

also, I believe, felt a little tender under these censures; for though their people have very few slaves themselves, yet they had been pretty considerable carriers of them to others."

In the articles of confederation no provision was made for slavery. Says Mr. Madison, in 1787: "If any slave elopes to those states where slaves are free, he becomes emancipated by their laws." We have noticed some discussion upon the subject at the adoption of the Constitution. With the exception of South Carolina and Georgia, the slave trade was regarded with horror. It was a settled conviction that slavery would cease by voluntary emancipation.

The eastern states, says Mr. Gorham, of Massachusetts, "have no motives for union beyond a commercial one." Northern commerce wished for protection, — Southern slavery wished for protection, — the bargain was struck, and the compromise completed. Thus was the Constitution adopted. In 1784 the great northwest was organized as Indiana territory. It embraced Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, and Illinois. Mr. Jefferson was chairman of the committee, and introduced the famous "*Ordinance*" in relation to slavery. It ran thus: "That, after the year 1800 of the Christian era, there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any of the said *states*,

otherwise than in punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been convicted to be personally guilty."

As the articles of confederation required nine states to carry a proposition, it was lost, although two thirds of the states and three fourths of the members voted for it. But, at the session of 1787, the same in substance, with the clause for the delivery of fugitives from labor, was adopted by a unanimous vote. Thus was passed the Ordinance of 1787. The report of Mr. Jefferson contemplated the vast territory, also, south of the Ohio river, comprising Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi.

It was expected that Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia, to which states these territories belonged, would cede them at once. But, as they were not ceded even in 1787, the Ordinance embraced only those north of the Ohio river. The territories south were afterwards ceded, but the states ceding them conditioned the right to hold slaves. In 1802, and for several years subsequently, earnest efforts were made by the inhabitants of the territory for permission to hold slaves for a given number of years, in order, as they alleged, to subdue the forests; but their prayer was denied, and the importunity ceased forever.

The vast territory purchased of France, called Louisiana, extended from the gulf of Mexico to the Rocky Mountains. In the cession from France, a clause was inserted securing to the settlers the right to hold their slaves, it having been established there by France and Spain. Louisiana was admitted as a state in 1812.

When Missouri applied for admission, she claimed the right to hold slaves under the clause of cession. To this it was answered, that all the inhabitants then in the territory were secured to their rights in the state of Louisiana. We will here note that there had been admitted the slave states of Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Tennessee, and Kentucky, and the free states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Vermont, from 1791 to 1820. As the Missouri Compromise constitutes a landmark in the history of slavery, we will give the action upon it. Mr. Scott, the delegate from Missouri territory, appeared for the first time in December, 1817.

In April following, he introduced, on petition of the inhabitants for that purpose, a bill to admit Missouri as a state, with the right to hold slaves. To this Mr. Tallmage, of New York, proposed the amendment of slavery prohibition, upon which the memorable debate ensued. This was the first instance where the question had come

up, when both sections of the country were determined to maintain their ground. Slavery was strong. Its profits were such as to excite the cupidity of men to the highest degree. It numbered its eleven states, and desired as many more. It claimed that Congress had no right to interfere with slave property, or with the institution even in the territories. On the other hand, it was contended that the Constitution, by fair construction, *did* authorize such interference, and that the Ordinance of 1787 was a precedent. It was the most exciting debate that had ever taken place under the government. The country was agitated from centre to circumference. The question was two years before Congress, and gave opportunity for all the state legislatures to instruct their representatives, which they generally did. A great principle was to be settled beyond the mere question at issue. Threats and defiance, appeals and arguments, were the weapons of the earnest disputants. Mr. Scott warned gentlemen to beware of the fate of "Cæsar and of Rome." Mr. Cobb, of Georgia, said: "You have kindled a fire which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, which seas of blood only can extinguish." Mr. Tallmage, in answer, said: "Language of this sort has no effect on me. My purpose is fixed; it is interwoven with my existence; its

duration is limited with my life; it is a great and glorious cause, setting bounds to a slavery the most cruel and debasing the world has ever witnessed; it is the freedom of man; it is the cause of unredeemed and unregenerated human beings."

All accounts concur that the spirit and temper manifested there indicated danger to the Union. No adequate idea can be formed at this time of the excitement which then prevailed. The result is well known.

The *Compromise* gave slavery to Missouri, but forever excluded it, thereafter, north of 36½ degrees north latitude. A large tract of fertile land lay upon the northwest of Missouri, between her west line and the Missouri river. In 1845 it was populous and wealthy. It was coveted by Missouri. Benton and Linn, then senators, by adroit management, effected the annexation of it to their state; and so quietly was it accomplished, that *Congress* hardly knew of its passage. Seven counties have been formed out of it. It has been the *Border Ruffian* rendezvous the past year. Thus was the Compromise first violated by Missouri herself.

For ten or twelve years the subject of slavery was rather incidental, until abolition petitions began to flood Congress and renew the agitation. Then came the famous "*Atherton gag*," which

virtually denied the right of petition. This was introduced by Mr. Atherton of New Hampshire, and was to the effect that all petitions for emancipation should be laid upon the table without being read. This was regarded as striking at a fundamental principle of popular rights; and drew out the "old man eloquent," J. Q. Adams, as champion of the right of petition. These petitions were the subject of angry debate for many years, and led to the espionage over the mails, with the murder of Lovejoy, destruction of presses, and other outrages deeply regretted by all the friends of order and good government.

The Wilmot Proviso next claims our attention.

Texas having been annexed in 1845, in the spring of 1846 an army, under General Taylor, was ordered to occupy the territory in dispute between Texas and Mexico. The result was a war between the United States and Mexico. It was expected, from some indications, that Mexico would yield and the dispute be settled. To facilitate negotiations, if they should be offered, an appropriation was granted of two millions of dollars, at the disposal of the President, to be employed for that purpose.

To that appropriation, Mr. David Wilmot of Pennsylvania, a Democrat, offered the proviso as follows: — "*Provided*, That as an express and

fundamental condition to the acquisition of any territory from the Republic of Mexico by the United States, by virtue of any treaty which may be negotiated between them, and to the use, by the executive, of the moneys herein appropriated, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory, except for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted."

This passed the House by a vote of 83 to 64; but the Senate adjourned without acting upon it.

Upon this question all the members from the free states, with the exception of three or four Democrats, voted for the proviso.

The two or three succeeding sessions of Congress were fruitful in propositions, amendments, and provisos; but Mr. Wilmot's did not pass the Senate. The organization of Oregon contained the principle.

The annexation of Texas opened a vast territory to slavery, as the bill provided for four additional states, to be regulated by the Missouri Compromise. That portion, however, lying north of 36½ degrees, being nearly worthless, it was willingly yielded.

An effort was made by the South for the extension of the Missouri line to the Pacific. It aimed at a slave state from the southern portion

of California. The free soil sentiment rejected it. The agitation of 1850 involved many questions of vital importance and interest to the country. A feeling of anxious solicitude pervaded the country in relation to the questions at issue, and a strong desire to see them adjusted upon equitable principles.

After a warm debate of many months the matters in controversy were compromised, at the suggestion of Mr. Clay, by admitting California as a state, and organizing Utah and New Mexico as territories, without the slavery restriction; Oregon with the slave prohibition; the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and the adoption of the *Fugitive Slave Act.*

Thus ended the memorable conflict of 1850, with its result. The free soil party obtained the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, but sacrificed, as their opponents urge, the principle of restriction. Whatever may be claimed, they did not so intend it.

Thus, having traced the leading incidents in relation to slavery, we will notice the position of the free state parties upon the subject. The Whigs have uniformly advocated the authority of Congress to prohibit slavery in the territories, and when called upon to act have opposed its extension; whilst the Democrats, professing the

same doctrines, and so resolving in state and county conventions, have, when the national organization claimed the sacrifice, *caved in*, as upon the Texas annexation, and the recent popular sovereignty principle. From the vote of the party in the recent Presidential election, they are now pledged to the removal of all restraint upon the extension of slavery. Hence, in future there can exist only the party *of* slavery and the party of *anti*-slavery.

It is urged that extension does not increase the number, but rather tends to ameliorate the condition, of slaves. The answer to this is, that extension increases the demand, and enhances the price, and thus, while cupidity is stronger than philanthropy, it retards emancipation. It has been argued recently that the relation of master and slave is not only the foundation of all good and stable governments, but that philanthropy and religion sanction and approve it; that servitude is the natural condition of the black race. This *moral* aspect puts to flight all false sympathy, and, if *true*, makes that a blessing which in their fanatical folly many before had regarded as a curse.

Mexico emancipated her slaves in 1826. England, in her West India possessions, in 1837. France in 1848.

HISTORICAL MISCELLANY.

CRUSADES.

The Crusades, or *Holy Wars*, as they have been termed, are among the most singular incidents of the world's history. They continued at intervals from 1095 until 1291. Their object was to wrest Palestine, or the Holy Land, from the possession of the Turks. In this enterprise the whole of Europe was aroused, at times, to a state of excitement bordering upon insanity. The great powers would, for a time, cease their otherwise interminable wars, and unite in this wild scheme of religious fanaticism.

From the earliest period of the church, pilgrimages had been made to the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem by the Christians of Europe. These were unmolested for many centuries; but at length, after the conquest of the country by the Mahommedans, in the seventh century, the treatment of pilgrims was such as to forbid their visiting the place of their desire without danger to

their liberty and life. This led to the preaching of resistance by enthusiastic individuals, who so far inflamed the public feeling as to lead to the results before named.

Religious teachers, including the Pope, proclaimed the Crusades as a "means of wiping away all offences which the people had committed." "The Pope placed all who took up arms under the protection of the Church, and promised that God would give them victory and the spoils of the Mussulmans." The people shouted, "It is the will of God," and flew to arms.

They marched under the banner of the Cross, and wore that emblem upon their breasts,—hence the name Crusades. The first two or three armies, consisting of numbers from 80,000 to 200,000, were literally a rabble horde, without arms, discipline, or provisions for their sustenance, under the belief that God, by a miracle, would supply all their wants. Such were their excesses that they provoked an opposition so powerful as to annihilate them before reaching their destination. Says a writer: "The actions of these brutal wretches were as detestable as their superstition was blind and unholy." They were guided by a goat and a goose, which they believed to be divinely inspired. They were met by a Hungarian army, in one instance, near

the Danube; and such was the slaughter, that the river was choked with their bodies and colored with their blood.

"By the destruction of these three armies, an immense mass of corruption was swept from the surface of society." At length the real chivalry of Europe was aroused, and, under the lead of Godfrey, a brave and prudent French knight, rallied for the mighty conflict. At this time, in Europe, the public mind seemed peculiarly susceptible to a strong religious excitement. The fabulous reports of Eastern wealth had highly stimulated a spirit of adventure, which could be satisfied only by an effort to possess it.

The Pope expected to win whole nations to the bosom of the church; — monarchs also anticipated increase of dominion; and their subjects were easily persuaded to engage in the glorious cause.

Urged on by these inducements, the army under Godfrey, 500,000 strong, well disciplined and provided, commenced their march for the Holy Land.

Their martial skill and prudence saved them from the fate of their predecessors.

They encountered upon the plains of Asia Minor the Mahommedan armies, and through sieges, vicissitudes, battles, and slaughter incred-

ible, they penetrated to Jerusalem, with about 40,000 men, which, after an assault of thirty-nine days, they succeeded in capturing.

The carnage that followed was horrid beyond description, — an indiscriminate slaughter, without regard to age or sex, to the number of about 70,000.

No submission secured protection, — no condition excited sympathy. Blood ran from the Mosque of Omar in such profusion as to float the mutilated bodies upon its tide. Amidst this scene of slaughter, they sang their hymns of triumph, and with no mercy for the slain, threw down their arms, and knelt in blood at the Holy Sepulchre, shedding tears for the once suffering Saviour. Godfrey was elected King of Jerusalem, and the language, laws, and religion of Europe were established in Palestine. They maintained their position till 1187, when the city was captured by Saladen, after which the Christians transferred their seat of empire to Acre.

Here they maintained a precarious existence until 1291, when the Turks subdued the whole Christian possessions, and nearly exterminated the inhabitants. Much speculation has been indulged in relation to the influence of these Crusades. The more general opinion is, that by commercial intercourse with European states, and

the opening of new sources of enterprise, wealth was augmented, geographical knowledge increased, and an impulse imparted to mental and physical development which was advantageous to both Moslem and Christian.

THE INQUISITION.

The Inquisition was an ecclesiastic court for the trial of all heresy in matters of religion.

It was established in the 13th century, in the south of France. The most conspicuous of these courts were in Spain, which contained sixteen of them. In 1480, Queen Isabella established the Supreme General Inquisition at Seville, which was termed the "*Holy Office.*" The manner of conducting its affairs was all in secret. Accusations and trials were secret. Malice was often the motive, and there could be no escape: there was no appeal. The slightest suspicion, or the false testimony of an enemy, might consign one to the dungeon or the rack, and no assistance could reach the doomed victim.

It was the most powerful machinery ever invented to impose restraints upon the freedom of thought.

No neutral ground was permitted; not only entire submission was demanded, but cordial approval of the court could alone secure safety. It was not only a terror to the Jew and secret Mahommedan, but to the nobility and clergy who inclined to the least freedom of opinion. The treasury was greatly enriched by the property of the victims, which was always confiscated. The condemned were given up to the flames, in the midst of pomp and magnificence (*auto-da-fe*), or pined away their lives in a loathsome dungeon.

These courts were also established in Italy and Portugal. Spain has been the most active in conducting them. The kings named the grand inquisitors, and they appointed their own associates and council.

During the eighteenth century, many of the officers were men of intelligence, and the courts did little more than to punish such offences against religion as would properly be liable in any country where toleration was not known. It is estimated that from 1481 to 1809, at which time the courts in Spain were abolished by Napoleon Bonaparte, that 350,000 had been convicted in Europe, 30,000 of whom were burned.

An officer in the French army, to whom had been intrusted the suppression of this court, gives a most graphic description of what was discov-

ered in one near Madrid. A portion of it we transcribe.

It was decreed by the Emperor Napoleon, after his conquest of Spain, that the Inquisition and monasteries should be suppressed. Col. Lehmanowsky was authorized to execute the order. A massive, splendid building, surrounded by a wall of great strength, situated about five miles from Madrid, constituted the place for the court, and this was defended by a company of soldiers. Col. L. repaired with his troops to the gates and demanded entrance. This was not only denied, but his men were fired upon from the walls; and it was not until a furious assault, with the application of battering rams, that they effected an entrance. The inquisitors were placed under guard, and the soldiers secured as prisoners. They then examined the rooms. After describing the splendid style of architecture, the rich and beautiful paintings, extensive library, the altars and crucifixes, the polished ceiling and marble pavements, everything in short to please the eye and gratify a cultivated taste, he says they could see nothing of those instruments of torture, or those dungeons in which human beings were buried alive, of which so much had been told. He says, "we searched in vain."

"The holy fathers assured us that they had

been belied, — that we had seen all, — and I was prepared to give up the search, convinced that this inquisition was different from others of which I had heard." But one of the under officers insisted upon one experiment, — that of pouring water upon the marble floor. The result of this was, they discovered an opening through the floor, and a staircase leading to a room below. Col. L. took from the altar a lighted candle, four feet in length, with which to explore the room below. The inquisitor, with a sanctimonious countenance, said to him: "My son, you must not take those lights with your bloody hands; they are holy." He answered, that he would "take a holy thing to shed light on iniquity," and proceeded to the search. A large square room, called the hall of judgment, was the first entered. In this was a huge block, with chains to fasten the accused. A throne of judgment, and seats for the inquisitor and other officers of the court, were all that were found here. From this room access was obtained to a great number of cells, which were places of solitary confinement. In these the wretched objects were confined till death released them, and their bodies were suffered to remain until they were decayed.

Bones were found still chained to the floor in

many cells; in others, those who had but recently died.

The offensive odor was conducted off by tubes extending to the open air. The further description we will give in Col. L.'s own language.

"In other cells we found living sufferers of both sexes, and of every age, from threescore years and ten down to fourteen or fifteen years of age, — all naked as when born, and all in chains. Here were the aged, the middle-aged, and the youth, who had been shut up for many years. The soldiers immediately released these captives from their chains, and after providing them with such covering as we could command, and furnishing them with food, we gradually brought them to the light, as they could bear it.

"We then proceeded to explore another room on the left. Here we found the instruments of torture, of every kind, which the ingenuity of men or devils could invent."

Col. L. thus describes four of these horrid instruments. "The first was a machine by which the victim was secured, and then, beginning with the fingers, every joint in the hands, arms, and body, was broken or drawn one after another, until the sufferer died. The second was a box, in which the head and neck of the accused were so closely screwed that he could not move in any

way. Over the box was a vessel, from which one drop of water a second fell upon the head of the victim, every successive drop falling upon precisely the same place, which suspended the circulation in a few moments, and put the sufferer to the most excrutiating agony. The third was an infernal machine laid horizontally, to which the victim was bound. The instrument was then placed between two beams, in which were scores of knives, so fixed that, by turning the machine with a crank, the flesh of the sufferer was torn from his limbs in small pieces. The fourth surpassed the others in fiendish ingenuity. Its exterior was a beautiful woman, or large doll, richly dressed, with arms extended ready to embrace its victim. Around her feet a semicircle was drawn. The victim who passed over this fatal mark touched a spring, which caused the diabolical engine to open, its arms clasped him, and a thousand knives cut him in as many pieces, in their deadly embrace."

The sight of these infernal engines of cruelty kindled the rage of the soldiers to fury. Nothing short of the sacrifice of all connected with the inquisition could satisfy them. They began with the holy fathers. The first they put to death in the machine for breaking joints. The torture of the inquisitor put to death by the drop-

ping of water on his head was most excrutiating. The poor man cried out in agony to be taken from the fatal machine. The inquisitor-general was brought before the infernal machine called the "Virgin." He begged to be excused. "No," said they, "you have caused others to kiss her, and now you must do it." They interlocked their bayonets so as to form large forks, and with these pushed him over the deadly circle. The beautiful image instantly prepared for the embrace, clasped him in its arms, and he was cut into innumerable pieces. Col. L. said that he witnessed the torture of four of them; his heart sickened at the awful scene, and he left the soldiers to wreak their vengeance on the last guilty inmate of that prison house of hell.

When it became known that the prisons of the inquisition were opened, multitudes flocked to the fatal spot. The meetings that followed were like a resurrection. Parents found their lost children; husbands and wives were restored to each other; brothers and sisters, long since parted, were again united; in short, about one hundred, who had been buried for many years, were now restored to life. No tongue or pen can describe the scene. After removing all that was valuable from the building, a train of powder was placed in the vaults, and when the explosion took

place, the walls and turrets of the massive structure rose majestically towards the heavens, and then fell back to earth a heap of ruins.

It was established again in 1814, but in 1820 it was abrogated by the Cortes, and has not since been in operation.

REFORMATION.

The Reformation is applied to the great mental conflict which ended in the overthrow of the Catholic supremacy, and the establishment of Protestantism throughout a portion of Europe, in 1517. Many and various were the causes which led to that result, but few of which our limits will permit us to notice.

The most prominent were, the arrogant pretensions of the Pope to universal authority, not only in spiritual matters, but also in the assumption of political power, with the manifest corruption growing out of the sale of indulgences. For a period of fifteen hundred years, the Romish church had undisputed sway over the Christian world, with but few feeble attempts at reformation or dissention, which proved abortive until the time of which we write. During the dark ages of European history, every facility existed for

the priesthood to enslave the minds of the people, in the most degrading superstitions and the most intolerable ignorance.

No religious teachings were too absurd to be embraced, no superstitions too gross to be believed. The whole political power of Europe was held by the Pope. He could make or dethrone kings, establish or destroy empires or kingdoms.

The sale of indulgences had long been practised, but was carried to the greatest excess immediately before and at this time. The great pecuniary profits induced the Pope and priests to presume too far upon the credulity of their subjects. These indulgences granted plenary pardon for prospective crimes, and made available, like insurance, in proportion to the amount paid for them.

Thus riches were permitted to purchase salvation, and hence the blackest crimes had their price, and the most abandoned knave, if but rich, could purchase impunity. Thus were the people taught that a free passage could be purchased through purgatory, or a mitigation of torments while they lasted. To such an extent was the system carried, that agents were employed to carry permits for crime, and traffic in their sale. One of these, by the name of Tetzel, extolled his

bills above the papal bulls (which required repentance), "his being unconditional promises of the forgiveness of sins in time and eternity." But a brighter day was about to dawn upon a benighted people. New facilities were offered for mental improvement. The art of printing had been discovered. Mankind began to emerge from the darkness that for centuries had surrounded them; mind began to act upon mind; men began to see the new materials which were offered for instruction; in short, the way was being opened for the course of freedom of thought in spiritual and political liberty.

The northern portions of Europe had for many years borne the yoke of oppression with impatience. Wickliffe, in England, had labored with much zeal, and not without success, for freedom of opinion; and much latent desire for reform existed elsewhere, which waited only the circumstances to give it utterance.

At this crisis a champion arose in the person of Martin Luther. He united, with a strong love of truth, the fearless energy and moral courage of a true reformer. Luther was a monk, and his position gave him a knowledge of the designs of the ruling powers, and the best method of defeating them. His first object was only to reform the *abuses* of the Roman church; but once placed

in the position of antagonism, there was left to him no alternative but submission, or rejection of all connection with the order. He chose the latter, and was instrumental in producing a complete reformation.

His escape from the murderous designs of his enemies, and his successful endeavors in promoting the cause, is a striking evidence of the overruling hand of God in the leading incidents of the world's history. So soon as the stone was set in motion, there was no want of other leading spirits to give it still greater impetus. All of the northern portions of Europe soon embraced the principles of the Reformation, by which the power of the clergy was in a great degree thrown off. Henry VIII., of England, was the first monarch to defy the papal power, and declare *himself* the head of the church. His motives may with propriety be questioned, but of his influence there can exist no doubt.

The struggles of the contending parties in England, for the succeeding century after the death of Henry, comprise one of the most exciting incidents of English history, and demonstrate the fact, that truth is stranger than fiction. But the revolution of 1688 established the entire supremacy of Protestantism in England upon a permanent foundation. The almost numberless

Christian denominations now existing, and the general toleration in spiritual matters practised in Christian countries, owe their origin to the Reformation.

JESUITS, OR SOCIETY OF JESUS.

"This, the most celebrated of all the Romish religious orders, was founded by Ignatius Loyala, a Spaniard, in the year 1534, when he, with other students at the University of Paris, bound themselves to undertake the conversion of unbelievers. As a religious body, the Jesuits differ from their predecessors, inasmuch as their principle is to conform as much as possible with the manners of the age. They have never adopted the austere observance and exclusive spiritual character upon which all earlier orders had grounded their claim to notoriety.

"They are divided into different classes, of which only *the professed* take the religious vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience to their superior." They are under an organization which consists of a general and assistants, or counsellors, whose head quarters are Rome, and who represent Italy, France, Spain, and Portugal.

Their missionary labors have exceeded those of all the other denominations of Christendom. They have penetrated every portion of the globe. Continents and islands, — the frozen regions of the North, — the burning sands of Africa, — the wilderness of the *New* World, and the deserts of the Old, — have been the abode of their missionaries.

MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

On the 24th of August, 1572, upon the morning of the Sabbath, the anniversary of a festival consecrated by the church to the memory of St. Bartholomew, the massacre of the Huguenots in France took place.

The French Protestants were called Huguenots. They were few in numbers, but powerful in rank, intelligence, and determination. "The Catholics were resolved that they would crush out Protestantism by every energy of persecution. The Protestants were determined that they would not be thus crushed out. Charles IX., a boy of some fourteen years, was then nominally king of France. His mother, Catharine de Medici, a woman of boundless energy, and of indescribable depravity, was appointed

regent during his minority. She governed France with a treacherous and merciless heart. History, perhaps, records not another instance in which a *mother* has endeavored to degrade her own son by every possible vice, that she might plunge him into debasement which would enable her to retain the crown. For a time civil war, with terrible ferocity, swept the kingdom; brother against brother, and parent against child." The Catholics, exasperated by religious fanaticism, thought that they did God's service in endeavoring to exterminate a deadly heresy. The Protestants were struggling in self-defence. The flame of civil war now blazed with intense fury. France was the arena where the Catholics and Protestants of all Europe met to decide the controversy with the sword. It was during this state of things, that Catharine resolved to accomplish, by the dagger of the assassin, that which she had failed to do on the field of battle.

The queen now lavished smiles and caresses on the Protestants, inviting the illustrious leaders and nobles to her court, and loading them with attentions. "A perfect adept in arts of guile, she lulled her victims to repose."

The daughter of Catharine, Marguerite, was about to marry Henry of Navarre, who was a Protestant. The Protestants were pleased with

this match, as they hoped to derive some protection from the kingly influence of Henry. It was upon this occasion that the Protestants were invited to be present, and vast numbers of the leaders repaired to Paris, as requested, to attend the nuptials. This was to be the time, by one blow, to annihilate the whole Protestant sect throughout the realm. An assassination was concerted to take place by signals; and the orders of the king were, "that not one single Protestant be spared to reproach me hereafter with this deed." The history of mankind furnishes many revolting acts of cruelty and murder, but the atrocity of this is without a parallel in the world's history.

The hour of two o'clock, Sabbath morning, Aug. 24, 1572, was the time appointed for the carnage. The alarm bell, the signal for Paris, and beacon fires and bells, were to spread the signal throughout all France, with the rapidity of light and sound. "The signal awakened the demon in ten thousand hearts, panting for the slaughter. The awful roar of human passion, the crackling musketry, the shrieks of the wounded and of the dying, blended in appalling tumult throughout the metropolis. Old men, terrified maidens, helpless infants, venerable matrons, were alike smitten down mercilessly, to the frantic cry, —"*Live God and the King.*"

No tongue can tell the horrors of that night. The report of guns and pistols, and continued volleys of musketry, from all parts of the city, proved the universality of the massacre. Miserable wretches, smeared with blood, swaggered along, with ribald jests and fiend-like howlings, hunting for the Protestants. Priests, in sacerdotal robes, and with elevated crucifixes, urged their emissaries not to grow weary in the work of exterminating God's enemies. The king, his mother, and ladies of the court, in the morning emerged into the reeking streets in splendid array, and, with merriment and jests, contemplated the dead bodies piled along the way. The massacre was continued in the city and throughout the kingdom for a week; and it is computed that from eighty to a hundred thousand Protestants were slain in France. A few thousand only of the whole Protestant population were spared, and these by the kind hearted and virtuous in the rural districts.

The clergy paraded the streets in a triumphal procession, and with jubilant prayers and hymns gave thanks to God for their victory. Thus was perpetrated one of the most unprovoked, the most fiendish, foul, and unmitigated crimes, that can be found in history.

The Edict of Nantes was issued by Henry IV.

of France, 1598, to protect the Huguenots who were spared at the massacre of 1572; but it was revoked by Louis XIV., 1685, in consequence of which five hundred thousand fled to Switzerland, Germany, Holland, England, and America.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.

The English East India Company is one of the most famous commercial associations that has ever existed. It was incorporated in 1600, having the entire monopoly of all trade east of the Cape of Good Hope. A variety of causes had been long operating in favor of such an incorporation. Several very valuable East India ships had been taken from the Portuguese and Spaniards by the English fleets, and awakened the cupidity of merchants to the obtaining a share in a traffic which promised such great advantages. At length, in 1593, an armament fitted out for the East Indies by Sir Walter Raleigh, and commanded by Sir John Burroughs, fell in with, near the Azores, the largest of all the Portuguese carracks, a ship of sixteen hundred tons burden, carrying seven hundred men and thirty-six brass cannon; and, after an obstinate conflict, carried her into Dartmouth. She was the largest

vessel that had been seen in England; and her cargo, consisting of gold, spices, calicos, silks, pearls, drugs, porcelain, ivory, &c., excited the ardor of the English to engage in so opulent a commerce.

"Many and severe have been the contests between the advocates of a free trade to India and the friends of the 'incorporated company;' but at length the long-supported monopoly of that powerful body yielded to an act of Parliament, passed in 1833, for continuing the charter till 1854, which, in fact, has put a limit to the company's commercial character, by enacting that its trade to China was to cease on the 22d of April, 1834, and that the company was, as soon as possible after that date, to dispose of their stock on hand, and close their commercial business. The functions of the East India Company are now, therefore, wholly political. It is to continue to govern India, with the concurrence, and under the supervision, of the Board of Control, till the 30th of April, 1854." For a century this company had the monopoly of the India and China trade, and were instrumental in introducing tea into commerce, which has since grown to an amount almost beyond computation. The history of their conquests in India is full of the evidence of weakness on the part of the natives,

and of power and unscrupulous cupidity on the part of the English. They have subdued and now reign over a territory larger than the United States, and a population of one hundred millions, at least.

THE MOORS IN SPAIN.

The Moors, as they were called, were a tribe of Saracens, of Arabian origin, who conquered all the northern portion of Africa. Their seat of empire, in Africa, was Morocco, — hence the name. They were a warlike people, bold, daring, and ambitious. They were induced, by the fertility and wealth of Spain, to attempt its conquest, and succeeded in subduing the southern portion, called Granada. Here they established a kingdom which, for luxury and refinement, exceeded any then known. Their architecture was truly magnificent, — their public edifices the most splendid and costly, — while their private palaces were adorned with all that art could suggest or wealth procure. Their conquest was effected in 710, and they were finally driven out of the country in the fifteenth century. The Alhambra, their royal fortress and palace, was to the Moors what the Temple of Solomon was to the Jews,

their pride and adoration. It was sufficiently capacious to contain forty thousand men; and its magnificent ruins form the most interesting object in Spain for the contemplation of the traveller. Its graceful porticos and colonnades,—its domes and ceilings, glowing with tints which have lost nothing of their original brilliancy in that pure atmosphere,—its airy halls and cooling fountains,—show the taste, opulence, and luxury of the builders.

Granada was a city of vast extent, and the great commercial mart of Europe; while its merchants were distinguished for their liberality and good taste. They made liberal outlays in public works, and in the display of courtly pomp were unrivalled by any people of the times. Fifty colleges and academies were scattered over the kingdom of Granada. They were liberal patrons of the arts and sciences. The city of Cordova contained the most extensive and grandest mosque in the world. It is now a Catholic cathedral. A thousand columns of the richest marble astonished the spectator at the first step into this gorgeous pile. Twenty-four gates of bronze, richly embossed, gave entrance to the Moslem worshipper; while four thousand seven hundred lamps gave a most brilliant illumination to the splendid scene. The main entrance had its folding doors covered

with plates of gold, and on the highest cupola were three golden balls, sustaining a golden pomegranate and lily.

But there was still another, — a private palace, — that exceeded in magnificence anything of the kind in any age. The palace of Zahra, with its gardens, was constructed by one of the Ommiads for his favorite sultana. The labor of twenty-five years and fifteen millions of dollars were expended on this spot. Twelve hundred columns of the most beautiful marble adorned the palace. The hall of audience was encrusted with gold and pearls. In the saloon was a magnificent alabaster vase, from which issued a fountain of quicksilver, glistening with the blaze of innumerable lamps of crystal.

Seventy libraries were open to the students, at a time when all the rest of Europe was without science, literature, or the cultivation of manners. During eight centuries of the dominion of the Moors in Spain, they exhibited all the various phases of civilization, from its dawn to its decline.

Their wars with the Spaniards were constant, and resulted in their subjection, near the close of the fifteenth century, when they were driven out wanderers, and wasted away until their nation was blotted from the map of history.

Wonderful people! Although heathen, as they were regarded by the other nations, they were diffusing light amidst surrounding darkness, and imparting a new impulse to the corrupt Christianity of the dark ages. Our own Irving has given to the Alhambra, and the conquest of Granada, all the thrilling interest of fiction, while narrating real facts. He spent many months among the ruins, which offered a theme worthy of the narrator, who was well fitted for the work.

HOLY ALLIANCE.

This was a league entered into by Russia, Prussia, and Austria, after the fall of Bonaparte, in 1815. It was called the "*Holy Alliance*," because its professed object was to sustain the cause of justice, religion, and good government, in the name of the Gospel. Its *real* object proved to be, to arrest all liberal movements whenever manifested, and sustain and strengthen despotism throughout Europe. All of the continental powers united in it, except the States of the Church, in Italy. England did not join in it fully, but gave it favor at first, then subsequently withdrew from it. France also withdrew her con-

nection with it, since which its influence has been but little felt. A suspicion that the three first named powers contemplated rendering assistance to Spain in arresting the revolutionary movements of her South American colonies, drew forth the famous "Monroe doctrine."

STAR CHAMBER.

Formerly a court of criminal jurisdiction at Westminster, England, so called from its roof being ornamented with gilt stars. This court decided causes without a jury, and was not governed by principles of common law or immemorial usage like other courts, but by its own arbitrary will, or the proclamations of the king in council. It became infamous, and was suppressed.

GUNPOWDER PLOT.

Few incidents of English history are more thrilling than the attempt, in 1605, to destroy both houses of Parliament with powder, and termed the "*Gunpowder Plot.*" It was the design of those engaged in it, to blow up both

houses, and destroy at the same moment Parliament, the king, and royal family, and then revolutionize the government and place the Catholics in power. The Catholic party had expected some favor from James I., but were disappointed, and hence the design. It was a bold, desperate, horrid measure, and so well arranged as to promise complete success, until the day before its consummation. A member of Parliament received a letter advising him to absent himself from the meeting, — that danger attended it. That circumstance led to the detection. Guy Faux was the principal manager in arranging the train for explosion.

MAGNA CHARTA.

A charter extorted from king John of England, in 1215, and was the foundation of the British constitution. It was the first attempt of the people to arrest arbitrary power, or royal prerogative, by a written constitution. It secured immunity from many of the abuses and oppressions incident to feudal tenure, and, by improvements, has become as liberal as the nature of the government will permit.

WAR OF THE ROSES.

This was a civil war in England, between the rival houses of York and Lancaster, for the throne. It continued for nearly thirty years, during which time the most revolting atrocities were committed, and in addition to the ordinary loss of life by perpetual war, about eighty members of royal families fell by the sword.

The emblems of the parties were a red and white rose. The partisans of York adopted the white, and those of Lancaster the red, as their distinguishing symbol, hence the name of the war. At length the bloody battle of "Bosworth Field" decided the contest in favor of Lancaster, and the whole matter was compromised by the marriage of Henry VII. to a *York Rose*, which united the two houses. It was a source of difficulty for nearly eighty years, and threatened many times the subversion of the government. The most violent period was from 1460 1485. Since that period the rose has been the emblem of England, as the thistle and shamrock are of Scotland and Ireland.

GIRONDISTS.

The Girondists were a moderate Republican party, in the early period of the French Revolution. The name is derived from the leaders who were sent to the assembly of 1791, from Bordeaux and the department called the Gironde. They were in favor of reform without revolution. They numbered among their leaders Vergniaud, Barbaroux, Brissot, &c., men of a high order of talents, eloquence, and purity of character. They were distinguished from the radical party of the assembly, which, from its position in the house, was called the *Mountain*, and for two years maintained a commanding influence both in the national assembly and as counsellors of the king. They had yielded to the popular clamor, under the hope that moderate councils would finally prevail, until the fire of revolution could not be extinguished by them, and not only all conservative elements, but the Girondists, and every vestige of true liberty, were consumed by its devouring flame (1793). From the Girondists the king had chosen his ministers, at the head of whom was Roland, whose wife became so famous.

After the execution of Louis XVI., in 1793, all

moderate men were driven from power, and the Girondist party was broken up. Twenty-one of its members were executed; about seventy escaped; while a number, in despair and mortification at the condition and prospects of their country, committed suicide. The madness of party could not spare the woman who had exerted her influence to arrest its furious career, but demanded the sacrifice of her life; and thus Madame Roland was executed. When her husband, who had escaped, heard of the death of his wife, he committed suicide.

Thus ended the only opposing force to that spirit of lawless violence and destruction which swept before its pitiless storm every principle of humanity, justice, and patriotism.

CONTINENTAL SYSTEM.

This was a grand design of Napoleon to exclude all British trade from the continent of Europe. The ports were all declared in a state of blockade, and the introduction of British manufactures prohibited. By this process, he hoped to induce the English government to make peace on favorable terms. It began with the Berlin

decree, in 1806. It did not succeed as expected. It was met by the British orders in council, as measures of retaliation, and, from its great inconvenience, was a subject of irritation to the people and governments of Germany, &c.

The next year, in the treaty of Tilsit with Alexander, it was agreed that Russia should maintain the system; but it was never carried into effect by that government, and was one of the causes of war, at a subsequent time, between the two powers. The system stimulated manufactures upon the continent of Europe, which has continued to furnish many articles which before were derived from other countries.

One dark feature of English history deserves notice. The English were jealous that Bonaparte might so far command the Baltic Sea as to exclude their commerce from it. In this emergency, they attempted to force Denmark into an alliance with them, by which they should receive the Danish fleet into their keeping. The proposition was rejected with indignation; whereupon the English sent their fleet, and, after destroying a portion of the city of Copenhagen, carried off the Danish fleet as a prize. This was a palpable breach of the rights of nations, and threw the Danes into an alliance with France.

SPANISH ARMADA.

Few incidents of English history are more interesting than that in relation to the Spanish Armada. It originated in an attempt of Philip of Spain to produce a revolution in England, and place the Catholics in power.

Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII., succeeded her father in 1553. "*Bloody Mary*," as she has been called, was a Catholic, and married Philip of Spain, who was the ruler of the most powerful Catholic country in Europe. Then followed the most deadly persecutions of Protestants, in England, during the reign of Mary. At her death, in 1558, her sister Elizabeth succeeded to the throne. Elizabeth was a Protestant, and restored that party to power and favor.

Philip made overtures of marriage to Elizabeth, which, being rejected, aroused his pride, and he determined to avenge himself by the conquest of England. Spain, at that time, was a powerful nation.

The project was to send a fleet so powerful, and an army so strong, as, with the coöperation of the Catholics, to revolutionize the country and restore the sect to power (1588).

For this purpose, the ports, not only of Spain,

but Naples, Sicily, and Portugal, were alive with preparations for fitting and supplying vessels of the largest class then known. The most renowned nobility were ambitious of sharing in the honor of this great enterprise. The Spaniards were so ostentatious of their power, and so confident of success, that they denominated their fleet the "*Invincible Armada.*" It consisted of one hundred and thirty vessels, of which one hundred were the largest ever before seen in Europe. They had on board 30,000 men, 2630 cannon, and all the appliances of war to make them formidable. This force sailed from Lisbon, and cast anchor before Calais, in the British Channel, to await the arrival of their army, under the Duke of Parma.

The great resources of Spain, with the uncertainty as to domestic sympathy and assistance, created intense excitement and fear in England. The English admiral, however, fitted out eight of his smallest ships with combustible materials, and sent them one after the other into the midst of the enemy, which so alarmed them that they cut their cables and fled with great precipitation.

Soon after the fleet put to sea, destined, as was supposed, for the coast of Ireland, a storm of great violence arose, during which a large portion of the famous Armada was wrecked; and as the

army did not appear, the fears of the English were quieted, and strength given to Protestantism. The English soon retaliated by capturing the ships of Spain, which were laden with the metals and spoils of her South American possessions and conquests.

The power of the Spanish nation soon declined, having been over stimulated by her gold, to the neglect of agriculture and manufactures, which are more certain materials for the prosperity of nations.

MANIAS, SUPERSTITIONS, AND HUMBUGS.

TULIP SPECULATION.

In Germany, about the middle of the seventeenth century, there arose a most amusing speculation, in the form of a mania for the little tulip plant, and became famous, like other bubbles, as "*The Tulip Speculation.*" This plant was introduced from Constantinople about the time before mentioned, and at once became a favorite with the phlegmatic Dutchmen. There seemed to be some peculiarly *taking* quality about this little *belle*, rendering it of great value. Hundreds of dollars were often paid for a single bulb, and in one instance, at least, a thousand were paid for a special favorite. The kind most sought after was called the "*Semper Augustus.*" It happened, on a time, that but two of these were to be had. This gave rise to a most spirited competition, and resulted in the payment for one

of nine hundred dollars in money, with sundry horses, carriages, and harnesses, thrown in by the dictates of a grateful heart for the good fortune in procuring it; while the other was procured by the sale of a farm, the purchaser being compelled to hire a small patch of his neighbor's, we presume, in which to plant his bulb. But of this the historian sayeth not. A writer, describing it, says: "Everybody entered into the speculation,—noblemen, merchants, mechanics, farmers, seamen, turf-diggers, chimney-sweeps, maid-servants, and old-clothes women." It was not necessary that the root should be held in possession; a bond for its delivery satisfied the immediate fever of the suffering patient, and could be transferred at a *living* profit. The prices continued to rise for four years, during which time many realized large profits, and were enriched, of course. But at length the government, in its wisdom, must interpose its authority, as though the people were not competent to manage their own affairs, and the bubble burst. Forty millions of florins (four million dollars) were spent in Holland in four years. How happy are we Americans, who can live under our own vine, &c., buy tulips, eastern land, fancy stocks, or make fools of ourselves generally, without the interference of our government.

MISSISSIPPI SCHEME.

Such was the name of a grand humbug which occurred in France in 1720. In 1712, the province of Louisiana was made over to Antoine Crozat, a French merchant, for fifteen years. The contract granted many privileges, with a monopoly of trade, — Crozat, on his part, to perform certain obligations. But he, in a few years, resigned his interest to the "*Company of the West*," or otherwise known as the Mississippi Company. This company established its capital at New Orleans, and subsequently became involved in the famous John Law speculation. Law was a Scotchman, — well educated, good looking, of easy address, and graceful manners; a gallant and a duelist. These several qualifications made him a favorite with the ladies, of course; and after many interesting gallantries, — killing his antagonist in a duel, gambling heavily, and raising the — wind generally, — he left England suddenly and landed in Paris, with all his *honors* thick upon him.

With a gentleman of Mr. Law's address and reputation, a short time would suffice to give him high standing in Paris society.

France was at that time laboring under the enormous debts contracted by Louis XIV.

Law broached a scheme for supplying that bankrupt nation with funds to meet all its wants and pay the national debts. A national bank, with large capital and great privileges, was chartered, 1718, to carry out Law's scheme. The Mississippi Company was attached to its interests, and it went into the full tide of successful operation.

The great company, it was expected, would realize immense profits from planting and commerce; and as they held the monopoly of trade for many years, the flattering prospects induced a strong desire to invest in the stock.

Land in the province of Louisiana sold for thirty thousand livres the square league. The company gave assurances that they would divide two hundred livres per share.

The consequence was, the shares rose from five hundred and fifty to five thousand livres in a few weeks, and the mania to procure stock spread over the nation like a tempest.

Every class of citizens, from the royal and privileged to the poor and dependent, rushed with one insane impulse to avail themselves of this philosopher's stone, to supply all their future wants, and gratify their anticipations of wealth and power. A benevolent feature in the transaction was, that there was no monopoly in stocks;

the poor shared alike, in proportion to their means, with the rich. Such was the demand, that in one year shares rose to more than sixty times their original cost.

"Law was at the pinnacle of his fame." His style of living and equipage were princely. The slightest symptoms of ill health produced a feverish state of the public feeling, and affected the price of stocks. But the bubble was too intensely inflated; some safety-valve must be opened, or it would burst.

The bank had issued one thousand millions of livres. The people began to be suspicious of its solvency. Two years had elapsed, and none of the promised dividends had been realized. The only alternative was, that Law, who continued in good standing, should be appointed comptroller-general of finance; but, in order to be eligible, he must change from the Protestant to the Catholic religion. He did so, — but even this *pious* sacrifice could not save the "SCHEME;" it had passed its point of culmination. The people awoke, as from a dream, to realize their ruin and feel the shame of their wild delusion. All was panic, confusion, ruin. Thousands of families were reduced from wealth to extreme indigence.

The public indignation, for a *safety-valve*, turned

against poor Law, who fled to save his life; and, after wandering in obscurity, died at Venice in 1729. The friends of Law claim that he was the dupe of the French regent, who transferred fifteen hundred millions of livres of the king's debts to the shoulders of the subjects, and made him the *scape-goat* of the political iniquity. They should have had the example of some American railroad officers, to ascertain how to pay dividends and dispose of funds to satisfy stockholders.

SOUTH SEA BUBBLE.

This is the name given to a "commercial scheme," which for a time created a kind of national delirium in England. A royal company, called the "*South Sea Company*," was chartered in 1720, for the ostensible purpose of trading to the South Seas, or, rather, with the South American colonies and natives. The company had the monopoly of trade with South America and Mexico; and such were at times the reports of mineral wealth and the fabulous Eldorado, that vast profits seemed sure from the mere exchange of British fabrics with the natives for their gold, beside the prospect of conquest and robbery.

Blunt, the projector of the scheme, conceived

the grand design of discharging the national debt by reducing all the funds into the stock of this company.

There was some foundation for profit in the trade, if conducted by prudent merchants, but the stock was a mere fiction, an air-castle, without the foundation of our own fancy stocks; for ours, of this day, are *certified* to by gentlemen who have *been there*, and can *swear* with the utmost confidence.

After the stock was consolidated, the subscriptions were opened, and in two days the sum exceeded the amount desired by one million pounds.

The action and excitement resembled that in France, already described, with this effect, — a vast number of charters were obtained for all manner of objects, many of them ridiculous in the extreme, but demanded by the dear people, who were laboring under a mania for stocks. The nation became intoxicated to such a degree, that the most absurd and knavish projects were resorted to for gain, and proved effectual.

An individual was empowered to issue stock, for a purpose to be made known at the end of one month. It was affirmed to be highly advantageous, and proposals were offered to subscribers under the following conditions. Each

person, paying two guineas, should be entitled to a subscription of one hundred pounds, which would yield that sum yearly. In one day, this advertiser of *valuable secrets* received a thousand subscribers, with the guineas, and then absconded, — of course.

We have benevolent gentlemen, at this time, who offer to furnish the means to obtain from "*two dollars to five dollars* per day," or fifty to one hundred dollars per month, and all for *one single dollar*, if sent "*post paid.*"

The sums proposed to be raised by those companies in England exceeded, in one year, three hundred millions sterling.

During the infatuation every one became rich, for the stock was sure to rise; and extravagance and profligacy were displayed in the most sumptuous furniture, equipage, and apparel. But this is not the worst feature of such excesses; — the moral influence is most deplorable. At the time of which we write, they indulged their criminal passions to a most scandalous degree, and their language was that of pride, insolence, and ostentation. After about one year of this state of things, a reaction began to take place. A *suspicion* was started that there must be an end to accumulated riches on *paper*, without dividends. In short, the *bubble burst!*

The ruin and indignation that followed cannot be described. It was found that five hundred thousand pounds, in stock, had been distributed to procure the passage of the bill.

The treasurer had absconded; — the *directors* were arrested, and their property confiscated; — Parliament passed many resolutions against such nefarious corruption; — many royal proclamations threatened indignation and punishment against the guilty parties; — while the house set itself to work to repair the wrong the wild scheme had produced.

ELDORADO.

This term was applied to an imaginary land, which was supposed to be situated in the interior of South America, between the Oronoco and Amazon rivers, and abounding in gold and all manner of precious stones. This country was fabled to far surpass Mexico or Peru in mineral wealth, and so excited the cupidity of the Spaniards, that vast sums were expended, and great loss of life incurred, in attempts to discover its location. These all proved abortive; yet the rumors of its existence were believed, down to the beginning

of the last century. The term has since passed into poetry, in which it is used to express a land of boundless wealth and felicity, like the ancient Elysium, or the Mahommedan paradise. The recent discovery of gold in California has given that country a fresh claim to the appellation.

ALCHYMY.

This is one of the most singular delusions that has ever disgraced humanity. It existed in Europe, and for about four centuries had, like other epidemics, its regular "*run.*" It sought to change the baser metals into gold; and with the *elixir vitæ*, or water of life, confer upon mankind perpetual youth, to enjoy their wealth. It had its origin, during the dark ages, in ignorance and folly; but, unlike most absurdities, instead of being banished by science and intelligence, it was strengthened. The wonderful effects produced by chemistry had a tendency to confirm the belief that such results, through its agency, would finally be attained. It was termed the "*philosopher's stone,*" and the report, in 1404, that it had actually been found, so far alarmed the British parliament, that an act was passed making it

felony to manufacture gold, fearing that some tyrant might ruin the state by its plentiful possession.

At a later period, however, the king granted patents to knights and monks to transmute the metals, "to the great benefit of the realm, and to enable the king to pay all the debts of the crown in gold and silver."

The king very naturally inferred, if the priests could convert the bread and wine into the "*real body and blood*," as they taught the people, they could transmute the baser into the precious metals. Volumes might be written to give the details of this delusion, and of the most amusing character. A Polish nobleman became interested in the subject, from having cherished two desires, which actuated every feeling and emotion of his nature. These were, to become king, of which he had a *real* prospect, and to live five hundred years, to realize his anticipations.

The stone and elixir were the agents to promote his wishes. He found in England two individuals, whose skill met his every want. They assured him that no impediment existed to his success, they could supply the gold with which he could purchase his way to power, and the elixir to preserve his life. A bargain was struck; the accommodating gentlemen went to Poland to

carry out their *designs;* and after a stay of two years, and *fleecing* the count to the amount of five hundred thousand dollars, like some modern office holders and clerks, "*came up missing.*"

A certain French marshal, De Savals, a man of boundless ambition and love of power, to gratify those passions sold himself to the d——l (as millions are doing daily), and signed the contract with his own blood! At the end of a given period, the true stone was to be made known to him, if he, the marshal, broke no conditions of the bond, by which he was to sacrifice, daily, the heart, lungs, hands, eyes, and blood of a young child. Horrid as the contemplation of such facts are, it is a matter of history; and it was not until he had murdered one hundred children, that detection, conviction, and execution followed the dreadful delusion.

MODERN PROPHECIES.

An epidemic terror has often been started, and for a season prevailed, that the end of the world was near, or some local calamity was about to fall upon certain places or people. A few of the most prominent of these we will notice.

In 999, according to the prediction of some seer, the world was to be destroyed, and the judgment to be at Jerusalem. The number of pilgrims from Europe to Palestine was so great, they were compared to a desolating army. All classes and conditions sold their effects, and started for the Holy Land. Lord and serf, master and servant, knight and citizen, travelled together, singing psalms as they went on their journey, looking with fearful eyes upon the sky, expecting each moment to see the heavens open and the Son of God descend to judge the world. As the time approached, the suspense was most intense and fearful. Thunder was the voice of God, and the earth was expected to open and yield up its dead. Any unusual phenomena of nature would bring the whole Christian population of Jerusalem into the streets, to weep and pray.

When the time passed, and the people were restored to their senses, their condition was deplorable indeed. In a foreign country, with exhausted means of support, their sufferings were intolerable. Tens of thousands perished before reaching their homes, and others returned only to reap the fruits of their folly in poverty and want.

In 1524, it was predicted that the Thames would overflow the city of London, and wash

away ten thousand houses. The alarm was so general, it is estimated that twenty thousand fled to the highlands to await, in fearful suspense, the destruction of the doomed city. During the years of a plague which desolated Europe from 1345 to 1350, a very general belief prevailed that the end was near, and that the epidemic was sent to prepare the people for their final doom,—that the trump of the archangel would call the world to judgment within ten years. In 1761, two shocks of an earthquake caused intense fear. It was predicted that a third, at the end of two months, would swallow up the city of London. The population left the city in great numbers, and that from the country flocked in vast multitudes as near to the city as prudence dictated, to witness its final doom. Their curiosity was not gratified. Whether or not they were angry, like Jonah, because God did not destroy the city, the historian sayeth not.

But there was still another, where the evidence was regarded as conclusive. In 1806, in Leeds, England, a hen laid an egg on which was plainly written the words, "*Christ is coming!*" Multitudes pressed to the spot to examine the egg, and were satisfied that now the time had *surely come*. A miracle had been wrought to enforce the truth. Like sailors in a storm,

they became suddenly religious, and presumed on pardon for believing a miracle so divinely evident. The Miller excitement of our own country and time furnishes evidence of the fact, that the same elements of delusion exist even in enlightened America in the nineteenth century.

WITCHCRAFT.

This is one of the most singular and inexplicable delusions of all past time.

Under the pretext of exterminating the enemies of God, religious fanaticism has immolated its millions upon bloody altars. War has desolated the earth, at the sacrifice of human life by *thousands* of millions, in the name of religion; but for this anomalous folly there seems to have existed no palliation. It could have been the offspring only of the most degrading superstition, under the influence of the lowest passions of the human heart. Its foundation rested upon the belief that the victim sold himself, body and soul, to the Evil One; and that the compact insured to the subject the pleasures of life, with the power to assume any form desired to torture an enemy.

Through all time there has existed a belief in

two opposing powers, — good and evil. Most Christian sects have their Supreme God, whom they clothe with the infinite attributes of love and mercy; while, at the same time, they believe he permits the existence of a power, embodied in a veritable personage, — a real "*roaring lion*," — of evil, to go about the earth tempting mankind to sin, and offering strong inducements and great bargain, for a mortgage upon the souls of the victims.

This is a system of brokerage upon a large scale, differing from that practised daily only in this, that the hundreds of our modern brokers prefer the mortgage on city lots.

As we shall see, this belief fostered a conviction that witchcraft and heresy were nearly allied; and hence, during the excitement growing out of the Reformation, this atrocious folly was the most wide-spread and fatal.

Witchcraft had been among the superstitions of Europe for two centuries, and continues even now to have its believers; but the greatest atrocities were practised immediately after the Reformation. The more firm the belief in the immediate interference of God in his providence with the affairs of men, the more firmly the belief also in evil spirits takes root. Such was the effect during and after the Reformation.

The reformers felt a strong conviction that God had interposed His Almighty Arm to overthrow the power of the dragon; and that the spirit of evil would assume all forms to regain its power.

The Calvinists, whose views of religion were the most austere and gloomy, afford the strongest example of this fact. A thousand elements combined to keep alive the flame after it had once been kindled, until it consumed the reason, affections, and conscience.

Satan seemed to reign triumphant. Every unusual phenomena of nature, the disease of insanity, the passions of malignity, ambition, and hypocrisy, were all brought in aid to strengthen the fearful phrenzy.

The greatest persecutions took place where the two religions were most warmly contested, — as in France, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Scotland, England, and, later, New England.

Upon the Continent many hundred thousands were executed. In England, the number is estimated at thirty thousand. At Geneva, five hundred were burned in three months, about 1515. In 1484, the Pope directed the Inquisition to be vigilant in searching out and punishing witches, to their final extinction. New England at length became the theatre for this bloody tragedy.

The "*Salem Witchcraft*," as it is termed, had its rise during the year 1692.

A law of England, in 1603, declared witchcraft a capital crime. This was adopted, in 1641, by Massachusetts, and at a later period by Pennsylvania. In 1656 some trials were had, but without much effect. In 1684 a trial in Pennsylvania resulted in the acquittal of the accused.

In 1688 there suddenly sprang up an excitement upon the subject, and one solitary victim was executed. This was a poor old woman, who was accused of torturing three or four children of one family, in Boston.

The strongest evidence of their being bewitched was, that they were struck dumb at the sight of the assembly's catechism, "Cotton's *milk* for babes," and some other *good* books of like character; while they could read without difficulty the Oxford jests, Popish and Quaker books, the Common Prayer, and other works not in good odor among the Puritans.

The flame kindled in Boston began to break out in other portions of the country, and became most violent, and finally spent its fury, in Salem Village, now Danvers. The magistrates had been active in throwing the accused into prison, when Sir William Phips, the governor, arrived from England, to head the persecutions. The

lieutenant-governor presided at the judicial tribunals. Behind these officials, the elders and ministers, led by Increase and Cotton Mather, father and son, urged on the dreadful work. Within one year about twenty were executed, and three or four hundred imprisoned. The excitement became intense, fearful, and deeply alarming. There was no safety. The purest life, the strictest integrity, the most solemn asseverations of innocence, availed nothing; every relation of life was broken up, and the victims saw in their accusers their dearest friends. The jails were crowded. More than a hundred women of fair character and reputable families, from several towns in Essex County, were arrested and imprisoned. The most singular part of this tragedy is yet to be told. The gallows was erected, not so much to punish the crime of witchcraft, as for the *special benefit* of him who doubted, or *dared* to rebuke, the dark spirit of iniquity. A madness so wild must be exhausted by its own intensity; it could not last long. The reflecting stood aghast. Where was it to stop? Who might not become its victims? People became accusers to save their own lives. The atrocities began to appear in their true light. The delusion began to abate, shame and deep regret were stamped upon the countenances of

the people, the spell was broken, and witchcraft was no more. Thus ended an epidemic madness, which will ever remain a monument of shame to the weakness and folly of human nature.

Robert Calef, a Boston merchant, wrote against witchcraft, which so exasperated Increase Mather that he caused the writings to be burned in the college-yard of Harvard (1700), he then being president. Clergymen were the last to yield to the dictates of reason.

ORIGIN OF SAYINGS AND CLASSICAL ALLUSIONS.

PASSING THE RUBICON.

The Rubicon was a small river which separated Italy from Cisalpine Gaul, the province allotted to Cæsar. A portion of the Roman people desired Cæsar to return and subdue their oppressors. To cross the Rubicon, was to invade Rome: he hesitated, but finally decided to cross, which he did, and reduced it to his power. Hence the phrase *to pass the Rubicon* signifies, to take a desperate step in any enterprise or measure from which one cannot recede.

CUTTING THE GORDIAN KNOT.

This was a knot in the harness of the chariot of Gordius, king of Phrygia, so intricate that no one could find beginning or end to it. An

oracle had declared, that he who should untie this knot should be master of Asia. Alexander undertook it, but, fearful of failure, cut it with his sword, and thus either accomplished or eluded the oracle. "Hence, in modern language, *to cut the Gordian knot*, is to remove any difficulty by bold, desperate, or unusual means."

Alexander succeeded in conquering Persia, but whether the prediction of the oracle had any influence over his destiny, is as doubtful as the assurance of marvellous humbugs at the present time.

AUGEAN STABLE.

Augeas, a king of Elis, was famous for his stables, where three thousand oxen had been kept for thirty years, without being cleaned. Hercules contracted to clean it for one tenth of the cattle. He turned a river through it. The king refused to pay, because, he said, Hercules had used artifice. This led to war, by which the king lost both his kingdom and his life. Hence, when any great reform is to be accomplished, the common term applied to it is, "*cleansing the Augean stable.*"

BLUE STOCKING.

This is a term applied to ladies whose talents or inclinations lead them to wield so dangerous a weapon as the pen. It was originally conferred on a literary society in England, to which both sexes belonged. Benjamin Stillingfleet, a distinguished naturalist and miscellaneous writer, who was one of the most active promoters of this society, always wore *blue worsted* stockings, and hence the name. Also Mrs. Jarningham, a beautiful and fascinating lady, was accustomed to wear stockings of this singular color at the *conversaziones* of Lady Montague; and for this peculiarity, which was so trifling in itself, literary ladies still receive the euphonious title of "blue stocking."

SHIBBOLETH.

This was a name given to a sort of test by which the ancient Jews detected the true or false in persons and things. It originated in the hostility of the tribes of Gilead and Ephraim. The Gileadites held all the passes of a certain river.

If one of the tribe of Ephraim desired to cross, he would deny his identity in order to succeed; and if he was suspected, was required to pronounce this word, which the Ephraimites invariably called SIB-boleth, and hence detected himself, and was instantly thrown into the river.

In modern times it is made a test by political parties. If the measures of a party are so radical or fanatical as to lead some members to hesitate in adopting them, they are forthwith arraigned before the inquisitors, and, if unwilling to pronounce the FULL Shibboleth, are expelled as political heretics.

UTOPIAN.

This term is one of common use, and denotes any visionary, fanciful, or chimerical scheme or ideal perfection. It is derived from a work called *Utopia*, written by Sir T. Moore, in which he represents an imaginary island, enjoying all the pleasures of just laws, political rights, and social amenities, in contrast with the imperfections elsewhere existing.

THE AGES.

We find the ages of the world mentioned by the earliest of the Greek poets. Hersiod speaks of five distinct ones. 1st. The *golden* or *Saturnian age*, when the people were free from laws, and had neither ships nor weapons, wars nor soldiers; the fertile earth needed no cultivation, and perpetual spring blessed it. 2d. The *silver age*, which was wicked and licentious. 3d. The *brazen age*, — violent, savage, and warlike. 4th. The *heroic age*, which seemed the dawn of a better state of things. 5th. The *iron age*, when justice and honor had left the earth.

Ovid also retained the division of Hersiod, with the exception of the heroic age, which he omitted. The first of these ages was under the dominion of Saturn; the second under Jupiter; the third under Neptune; and the fourth under Pluto, or, as some consider, Apollo. These ages constituted a great year of the heavens, in which was comprised many of our solar ones. Each age also represented a season. Spring was the golden, summer the silver, autumn the brazen, and winter the iron.

This idea of the ages prevails among many

different nations of the globe, and particularly among the Brahmins, who believe that from the first down to the last age, the one in which we live, there has been a gradual increase of vice; so that the life of man, which in the golden period was four hundred years in length, is now reduced to one fourth of its original duration.

MEDIEVAL OR MIDDLE AGES.

This term is used by writers and speakers to denote the period from the destruction of the Roman empire to the fifteenth century, or the time when learning began to revive in Europe. The term DARK AGES is also applied to this period. The feudal system was established by the northern nations, who subdued the Roman power; and such was the mental darkness and despotism that prevailed, that the people were the willing slaves of the most heartless and brutal tyranny that has ever existed in any age or nation.

MAY DAY.

This festival was first instituted by heathen nations in honor of Flora (goddess of flowers), and was observed with great joy as the opening season of flowers. It was first observed in England by the Druids, at a very early period. They were accustomed to light fires upon eminences, in gratitude for the return of spring. It became a national festival, and is a day of much diversion and pleasure, participated in by all classes. In America it is not national, but with many rendered somewhat amusing.

MACHIAVELLIAN POLICY.

During a period of great prosperity in the arts in Florence, about 1527, a man of great talents and influence, by name Machiavelli, wrote many works on political economy, and the relations of the ruling powers to the people, and their obligations of obedience, &c. He was a man of great acuteness, and actuated in all matters by the policy best adapted to subserve his own inter-

ests. In one of his works, termed "The Prince," he presents the picture of a ruler, who, without regard to virtue, morality, or religion, knows how to establish his own absolute power, and make his own will the law. Freedom, national prosperity, truth, and justice, are of little account; intellect alone being held in any estimation. Thus any system of policy which requires the sacrifice of integrity, philanthropy, and moral obligation to the faithless principles of expediency, by which any portion of the people are deprived of their natural rights, is distinguished by the epithet,—Machiavellian.

APRIL FOOL OR ALL FOOLS' DAY.

This is of ancient origin, and derived from Hindostan and Persia. It was a festival for the new year, which began near the vernal equinox, or, according to Persian reckoning, with the month of April. During these festivals the most unbounded hilarity prevailed, with the custom of playing upon each other the most witty and curious tricks that could be devised.

The custom was introduced into England from

the East, and became very common and amusing. Ten thousand jests and jokes, many of them April *foolish*, as well as some witty, have of course been perpetrated.

A certain Frenchman, as the story has it, had heard much of *April Fool Day*, and, understanding the English curiosity for new things, if mysterious or wonderful, decided to try his skill upon a trick. He inserted a notice in the newspapers that a new discovery had been made, by which portraits could be permanently fixed upon a mirror by placing the subject before it. The secret, of course, was known only to the advertiser. All who desired to witness the operation were invited to call the next day, at a given time and place, for the purpose. Opposite to the place designated the advertiser took lodgings, to watch the effect of his notice. The crowd was immense. Gilded coaches freighted with the nobility, and the humble pedestrian, alike sought to gratify their curiosity. The arrangement was such, that as they entered the room they saw themselves in a splendid mirror, and read, at the same time, in flaming capitals, *April Fool!* The effect may be imagined, — it cannot be described. The Frenchman sat at his window to enjoy his joke, which was perfect.

But the best is yet to be told. A French

artist, by the name of Daguerre, taking the suggestion of a portrait on glass from what was intended merely as an April Fool trick, after long experimenting, succeeded in perfecting the beautiful art of daguerreotyping. The joke of the Frenchman was *rich*, the reality of Daguerre RICHER.

MISCELLANEOUS.

LOTTERIES.

In the early history of Rome, the authorities instituted a custom of distributing presents to the people, and the names of different articles were written upon a bit of wood and drawn as ballots. This was an opportunity to obtain an article of greater or less value. All were entitled to something.

The Italian merchants obtained permission of government to sell their wares by writing the name of the articles upon scrips, and having them drawn from the "Jar of Fortune!" This system was carried to great excess, and so palpable were the frauds, that government interfered to suppress it, except upon one condition. Venders were licensed by the payment of enormous sums, the proceeds of which were to be devoted to *pious* purposes, such as the portioning of poor young women, the redemption of slaves, and other general charities.

The profits were so tempting that princes established them as matters of finance; and, as kings could do no wrong, they were sure to *hold the stakes.* Noblemen were permitted to establish lotteries for the benefit of their tenants. These were drawn by charity boys, blindfolded. The ceremony took place on Palm Sunday, with much solemnity; mass was said, servants swore to be faithful, and the Pope granted remission of sins to those who should promote so benevolent a work.

This species of gambling was tolerated for centuries in most European governments, as a means of raising money for public purposes, until it was found to foster a spirit which gave rise to all manner of fraud and schemes of delusion, and was suppressed in England in 1823, and in France in 1836. In Germany, lotteries are still granted to some extent.

In our own country, a small portion of the states suffer them still; but the better judgment and principles of the American people will probably suppress them. They are not permitted in New England.

Modern "*Gift Enterprises*" are a form of humbuggery which present specious pretexts, and hence subject the credulous to most flagrant fraud and knavery, and should be visited with the same penalties as lotteries.

AN OLD BOOK.

The oldest book in the United States is a manuscript bible in the possession of Dr. Witherspoon, of Alabama, written over a thousand years ago! He describes it as follows: "The book is strongly bound in boards of the old English oak, and with thongs, by which the leaves are also well bound together. The leaves are entirely made of parchment, of a most superior quality of fineness and smoothness, little inferior to the best satin. The pages are all ruled with great accuracy, and written with great uniformity and beauty in the old German text hand, and divided off into chapters and verses. The first chapter of every book in the bible is written with a large capital of inimitable beauty, and splendidly illuminated with red, blue, and black ink, still in vivid colors; and no two of the capital letters in the book are precisely alike."

A great variety of materials were formerly used in making books: plates of lead and copper, the bark of trees, brick, stone, and wood, which were covered with wax, that it might be blotted out. The ten commandments were written upon stone; and the laws of Solon upon wooden plank. When it was desirable to perpetuate a record it was

often written upon pillars of stone. The following presents the different terms applied to books, &c.

Books. — In former times a kind of reed was used to write upon. That reed was called *papyrus*. It is from this name that we speak of our *paper*. In former times, also, they wrote upon the leaves of trees; it is from this cause that we talk of the *leaves* of a book.

The Romans called a book *liber*. This word made us call a room where books were kept a *library*.

In those old times, when skins were written upon, they were rolled up. This roll was called *volumen*. This old word has been kept by us as near as may be. We call a single book a *volume*.

The inner bark of trees was used for writing upon. The people who lived in England, many hundred years ago, used to write upon the bark of the beech tree: they called this bark *boc*. We have not changed the word much; we still talk of a *book*.

CHARACTER OF THE DUTCH.

It is well known that a habit prevails almost everywhere of underrating and disparaging Dutch character and Dutchmen. Holland, though occu-

pying a territory not larger than the State of Maryland, was the first among the nations of Europe to take a stand in favor of liberty, and, single-handed, bravely maintained a sixty years' war in its defence, against the greatest odds. At a time when France and England were yet enveloped in bigotry and superstition, Holland had achieved for herself civil and religious freedom, and opened her bosom as an asylum for the oppressed Huguenots; while others, the pilgrim fathers, sought refuge from persecution in the wilds of America. Holland for a time took the lead of all the surrounding nations in commerce, in science, in arts, and in arms. For the invention of the telescope, microscope, thermometer, pendulum, gunpowder, and printing, the world is indebted to the Dutch.

OSTRACISM.

A popular judgment in ancient Greece by which a person was banished for the term of ten years. It was not for crime, but from a jealousy against those who had acquired great influence by wealth or position, such influence being considered dangerous to the liberty of the state. There was

no disgrace attached to it. After the expiration of his term, the individual was at liberty to return and resume his property and all the rights of a citizen. It was designed to act as a check upon men of great influence and ambition. If six thousand shells were deposited at a place appointed, with the name of an individual written upon them, he was banished, otherwise, acquitted.

Aristotle calls it the "medicine of the state."

AGRARIAN LAWS.

The common impression at this day is, that Agrarian laws were enforced by the people to deprive the wealthy of their property, and divide the spoils among the poor. This is incorrect. They were instituted, in the early history of Rome, to divide conquered territory among the citizens in equal parts, limiting the number of acres each might possess. One object was, to relieve the city of an excess of population, and make their conquests available to profit; and also to diffuse Roman citizens over foreign territory, in order to strengthen the government by making each individual personally responsible. It was a wise and equitable policy.

LAWS OF NATIONS.

This term indicates the laws and immemorial usages which have governed nations in their commercial and social intercourse. In the earliest history of navigation around the Mediterranean Sea, the nations had their maritime codes. At a later period, England and other countries instituted them; but the most perfect, and the one generally adopted by all commercial nations, was established by France, under Louis XIV. It embraced a great variety of subjects, and was elaborate in its details.

WINDFALL.

A term very common, the origin of which was as follows: "Some of the nobility of England, by the tenure of their estates, were forbidden to fell any of the trees upon them, the timber being reserved for the use of the royal navy. Such trees as fell without cutting were the property of the occupant. A tornado, therefore, was quite a joyful event to those who had the occupancy of extensive forests; and the *windfall* was sometimes of very great value." Hence the term when any one receives a gratuity.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

James Smithson, an English gentleman, in 1826 bequeathed a large estate to his nephew, with a condition, that, in case of his death without issue, the property should be paid over to the "United States of America, to found an institution for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." In 1835 the nephew died, leaving no heirs. In accordance with the will, the United States government, in 1838, received about five hundred thousand dollars. The money was loaned to a number of the Western states, and in consequence of their failing to restore it there has been much delay; but it was put in operation the last year, and is an ornament to our national capital.

ENGLISH CORN LAWS.

This does not refer to Indian corn or maize only, but to wheat and all edible grains. The British grain tariff was established upon what is termed a sliding scale. When wheat was fifty-seven shillings per quarter (eight bushels), the duty was twenty shillings; but when it rose to

seventy-one shillings per quarter, the duty was but one shilling. This system of duties was established long since by the efforts of land owners, by which the prices were kept high and nearly uniform. It operated as a burden upon the great mass of consumers, and even tenants, and led to the Chartist movements, which resulted in the repeal of all restrictions upon breadstuffs, and opened the English market to the competition of the world (1846).

EMBALMING.

This process of disposing of their dead was a custom peculiar to the Egyptians, in their earliest history. It consisted in winding around a corpse innumerable folds of linen cloth, saturated with gum, which excluded the air and preserved it from decay. These were called mummies. It is supposed to have arisen from the belief, cherished by the people, that the soul could not enter into its everlasting repose unless the body was preserved. Their priests were supposed to possess the power of giving up the bodies of the sinful to corruption, and by this means causing the transmigration of their souls into the

bodies of animals. Their religion and worship consisted of the very worst forms of idolatry.

Egypt has furnished to the antiquarian a great variety of objects to excite curiosity and wonder. Her pyramids and obelisks are objects of wonder, and her utensils, trinkets, and ornaments are found in all the museums and cabinets of natural history in Europe.

Thebes, in Upper Egypt, with its "hundred gates," was once among the most splendid cities of the world, and one of the "seven wonders."

MASON AND DIXON'S LINE.

This is a phrase usually employed to describe the boundary between the free and slave states. Certain territory was granted to Lord Baltimore and William Penn, situated upon the Delaware. A dispute arose between the proprietors in relation to their claims. Commissioners were appointed by the English courts, in 1760, who employed Messrs. Mason and Dixon, two scientific surveyors, to establish the line and settle the difficulty. It is the boundary between Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania, and has ever since been called as above.

FEUDAL SYSTEM.

About twelve centuries since, the Northmen, or tribes from the northern portion of Europe, overran and conquered the Romans, and established governments upon the ruins of the state. The government of these barbarians, as they have been termed, originated the "Feudal System."

A successful chieftain allotted portions of the conquered territory to his principal officers, and they in turn made subdivisions to their inferiors. The conditions were, that faithful military service should be rendered to the chief by all inferiors; and as in war alone the hope of renown consisted, each became emulous of distinguishing himself by his valor in arms, as the only source of respect. The great mass of the people were excluded from military service, and were the most abject serfs of the privileged class.

For centuries a system of plunder and robbery was carried on between these petty tyrants, which often threatened to subvert every vestige of government and order, until, at length, the inherent principles of oppression became so intolerable that the system began to decline, through a spirit of disaffection and resistance too strong and universal to be checked.

As intelligence began to exert its salutary influence upon benighted Europe, governments were established of sufficient strength to control the feudal lords, and secure to the people some approach to their natural rights in the mitigation of their feudal oppressions.

The system continued, however, in milder form, down to the revolution in France, in 1789, when it yielded to the popular influence for the "people's rights," and was nearly annihilated in that country and some other portions of Europe.

The introduction of the system into England gave rise to baronial possessions, the influence of which is seen and felt in the government and institutions of the country at the present time.

The castles or strongholds of the feudal lords are scattered throughout Europe, most of them now in ruins. The allotted portions of land were called *feifs*, or *feudes*, and hence the term "Feudal System."

GRECIAN MYTHOLOGY.

The Greeks, who were heathens, worshipped a great number of gods and demi-gods. Over every action in life, and everything in nature,

some deity was supposed to preside. These were divided into three classes, celestial, marine, and infernal. The divine abode of the celestial gods was on Mount Olympus. Jupiter was the highest one of all, the father of other gods and men. He was the son of Saturn, the god of time, whom he dethroned, and then divided the world between his brothers, Neptune and Pluto. To Neptune he gave the empire of the sea; to Pluto the infernal regions; whilst the sovereignty of heaven and earth he reserved for himself. He took in marriage his sister Juno. His greatest exploit was the conquest of the Titans, a race of giants, who attempted to ascend into heaven by piling the mountains Pelion and Ossa one upon another. He is always represented seated on a throne, with a sceptre in one hand and thunderbolts in the other, and an eagle at his feet.

Neptune, the brother of Jupiter, and second in command, was god of the ocean, and is depicted as drawn in a chariot made of a shell, by sea-horses, over the water. A crown is on his head, and a trident or sceptre in his hand. Pluto, the remaining brother of Jupiter, and god of Tartarus, or the infernal regions, was deformed and cruel. Not finding any goddess willing to marry him, he seized Proserpine, the daughter of Ceres, and, opening a passage in the earth, bore her

to his dominions below, married and made her queen of hell. He is represented seated on a throne of sulphur, with his wife, and a bident, or two-forked sceptre, in his right hand, and the keys of hell in the left. On his head a crown, and the three-headed dog Cerberus at his feet.

Apollo was the son of Jupiter and Latona. He presided over music, poetry, the fine arts, and archery. He was also called Phœbus, and was the deity of the sun, which he guided in his diurnal course through the heavens. He is represented as a handsome youth, with rays about his head and a lyre in his hand.

Mars, son of Jupiter and Juno, was the god of war, and is depicted as an armed man, standing in a chariot drawn by two horses with Bellona, a female deity, as his charioteer.

Mercury, son of Jupiter and Maia, was the messenger of the gods, and the patron of travellers, orators, merchants, and thieves. He is depicted as a youth, with wings on his cap and heels, flying through the air, bearing in one hand a peculiar wand, called a caduceus, and in the other a purse.

Bacchus was the son of Jupiter and Semele, and was the god of wine. He is usually depicted as a ruddy young man, crowned with ivy

and vine leaves, holding a cup in one hand, and a spear, called a thyrsus, in the other.

Vulcan, son of Jupiter and Juno, was the god of fire, and the patron of those who wrought in the metallic arts. He was thrust out of heaven by his father, and falling on the Isle of Lemnos broke a limb, and was a cripple ever after. Vulcan forged the thunderbolts for Jupiter, also the arms of the gods. His workshop was believed to be under the burning mountain Ætna, in Sicily; hence the term *Volcano*. Vulcan is represented as working at a forge, one hand raising the hammer, the other holding a thunderbolt on the anvil, while an eagle waits to bear it finished to Jupiter.

Cupid was the god of love, the son of Venus and Vulcan. He is depicted as a beautiful boy, with bandaged eyes, bearing a bow and arrows, which he shoots into the hearts of those he wishes to inflame. No one had power to resist him.

Hymen, god of marriage, was represented crowned with flowers, and bearing a lighted torch.

Æolus was the god of the winds, which at his pleasure he kept confined in caverns.

Pan was the deity of shepherds and the country. He was horned, and had legs, feet, and a tail like a goat. The Fauns and Satyrs were rural demi-gods.

Plutus, an infernal deity, was god of riches He was lame and blind.

Charon, an old man with white hair and filthy garments, was the ferryman of hell. He ferried departed souls across the Styx, a dismal stream the boundary of Pluto's dominions. None could enter his boat without a regular burial; without this, they wandered a hundred years amidst the mud of the shore.

Minos, Rhadamanthus, and Æcus were the three judges of Tartarus, the abode of horror and darkness. They condemned the wicked to torments, and rewarded the good with heavenly pleasures.

Juno, styled the queen of heaven, was both sister and wife of Jupiter. She was haughty and unrelenting in character, graceful and majestic in person, and presided over power, wealth, and marriage. She was held in great veneration, and of all the divinities her worship was the most solemn. She is represented seated on a royal chariot drawn by peacocks, with a jewelled diadem on her head, a golden sceptre in her hand, and Iris, the goddess of the rainbow, as her attendant.

Minerva, goddess of wisdom, sprang, armed, from the head of Jupiter, and was the only divinity that seemed equal to him. She instructed

in ship-building, navigation, &c., and was worshipped for her kindness and beneficence. She is represented as a female of commanding aspect, armed with helmet, breastplate, shield, and spear, whilst an owl, the bird that is sacred to her, sits by her side.

Venus, goddess of love and beauty, was the daughter of Jupiter and Dione, or, as some say, she sprang from the foam of the sea. The most beautiful temples dedicated to her were Paphos, Cythera, and Idalia. She is represented as a handsome woman in undress, attended by her son Cupid.

Diana, goddess of hunting and chastity, is painted as a beautiful female with a crescent on her forehead, bow and arrows in her hand, and buskins on her limbs.

Ceres, daughter of Saturn and Cybele, was the goddess of corn and the harvest, and taught the cultivation of the soil. She is represented as a majestic woman crowned with corn, holding in one hand poppies and corn, and in the other a lighted torch.

Hebe, daughter of Jupiter and Juno, was goddess of youth, and cup-bearer of the gods. She is painted as a blooming girl, holding a cup.

Vesta was goddess of fire, and guardian of houses and hearths. She is represented as a

virgin in a long, flowing robe, a veil on her head, and bearing a lamp and javelin.

Astræa, goddess of justice, ascended into heaven, and was transformed into *Virgo*, one of the signs of the Zodiac.

Themis was the goddess of law.

The Muses, daughters of Jupiter and Mnemosyne, were patronesses of literature and the fine arts. They were nine in number: viz., *Calliope*, who presided over eloquence and epic poetry; *Clio*, over history; *Erato*, over lyric poetry; *Euterpe*, over music; *Melpomene*, over tragedy; *Polyhymnia*, over rhetoric; *Terpsichore*, over dancing; *Thalia*, over comedy; and *Urania* over astronomy.

The *Graces* were three in number, daughters of Bacchus and Venus, and named *Aglaia*, *Euphrosyne*, and *Thalia*. They are depicted as blooming virgins, holding each other by the hand.

The *Fates* were three daughters of Jupiter by Themis, named *Clotho*, *Lachesis*, and *Atropos*. They decided on the fortunes of mortals. Clotho spun the thread of life, Atropos cut it with her scissors, and Lachesis turned the wheel.

The *Furies* were three in number, and to them belonged the task of punishing the crimes of all bad men. Instead of hair, their heads were

covered with serpents, and their looks were full of terror. They waved a torch in one hand, and with the other wielded a scourge.

The *Dryads* were nymphs of the wood; the Naiads of the fountains; the Nereids of the sea; and the Oreads of the mountains.

The *Syrens* were three persons with the faces of women and bodies of fishes. Their voices were so melodious that mariners were allured by them to their own destruction.

Elysium, or Paradise, the abode of the blessed, was a region of perfect beauty and happiness. There flowers forever bloomed; soft winds fanned the perfumed air; birds warbled sweetly in the groves; whilst a light clear and heavenly was diffused over all. No sorrow or care could here disturb the peace of the inhabitants, who spent their time in pleasure, and in praising the wisdom of the gods.

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS.

The cotton plant was found in Mexico, and was wrought into a coarse fabric by the natives, to some extent, for clothing. Prior to that period, it was known only in India and Egypt.

The tobacco plant was found at Tobago (West India island), and hence the name.

Indian corn or maize, and also potatoes, were found upon this Continent, — not before known to the world.

Arkwright, an English barber, invented a spinning apparatus in 1769, which has been improved and is now in use.

Dr. Cartwright, in 1785, invented the power-loom, which met with the greatest opposition from the hand-loom weavers.

Eli Whitney, an American, in 1793, invented the cotton-gin, by which the seed is separated from the fibre. The process before, by hand, was slow and expensive.

The three last named inventions changed the commerce of the world. In 1794, Great Britain consumed one million six hundred and one thousand seven hundred and sixty pounds of cotton; now, twelve hundred million pounds per annum.

In 1810, the extent of cotton goods manufactured in the United States was one hundred and forty-six thousand nine hundred and seventy-four yards. *Now*, one establishment in Lowell manufactures over twenty-five millions of yards per year.

In 1807, the first experiments were made by Fulton with steam. Its progress is well known.

In addition to its application to purposes of locomotion, the power is also applied to manufacturing to a vast extent.

Caoutchouc, or India Rubber, discovered in Brazil in 1735. For a hundred years it was used only to rub out pencil marks. Now the consumption of it is three million pounds per year, converted into clothing, shoes, &c.

Gutta Percha, found in India, 1842, is among the most wonderful productions of nature. Like India Rubber, this is a gum. It can be made soft, and moulded at will, and then becomes hard as glass, yet tough. It enters into every branch of manufacture, both of utility and ornament.

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